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AND  
AMERICAN REGISTER.

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VOL. VI.

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1806.

# THE HISTORY OF THE

## AMERICAN

The history of the American people is a story of the struggle for freedom and independence. It is a story of the brave men and women who fought for the rights of the oppressed and the establishment of a new nation. The story begins with the first settlers who came to the Americas in search of a better life. They found a land of opportunity and freedom, but they also found a land of conflict and struggle. The story continues with the fight for independence from Britain, the establishment of a new government, and the struggle for civil rights and equality. The story ends with the present day, where the American people continue to fight for a better future.

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*FOR THE LITERARY MAGAZINE.*

ON THE BEST MEANS OF NATIONAL DEFENCE.

THERE is no subject of political reflection of more importance than that of national defence. Happily, America is, at the present moment, more likely to be engaged in enlarging than defending her territories, but how long her present security from regular invasion may last, it is impossible to conjecture. No disquisitions on this subject can, at any time, be quite unseasonable, as peace is the only period of preparation and provision against future danger.

The following ingenious thoughts on this subject, by a British politician, were designed for the present situation of affairs in Great Britain, but they will not be found unworthy to excite interest and curiosity in the statesmen of every nation.

It appears, from the most careful survey of historical evidence, that a well disciplined army has, in all ages, been a sure foundation of political importance and power; and that such armies have been the immediate and efficient instruments in bringing about all those important revolutions in the affairs of mankind, of which history has preserved any

authentic record. It is therefore very material to inquire, what are the peculiar qualities which characterize soldiers, and in what manner those qualities naturally arise out of the peculiar constitution which armies have in all ages assumed.

The constitution of an army is not the fanciful device of any rash projector; its fundamental principles are grounded on the unchangeable qualities of the human mind, and have on that account remained stationary, amid the varying fashions, manners, and improvements of mankind; it has, indeed, grown out of the nature of society, and has been found, by the universal experience of mankind, to be well calculated to fit those who are trained under its regulations for the purposes of war.

The perfection of a military force consists in an instant and complete obedience to command; not indeed on a parade, where any man may, without much exertion, yield a ready compliance with whatever is enjoined him; but it is in braving every mode of peril and of death, in obedience to orders, that the milita-



ry character is exhibited in its genuine perfection. It is therefore the object of discipline, not only to establish authority on a solid foundation, by training men to a constant familiarity with the peremptory decrees of martial law, but also to facilitate and secure obedience, by forming and bringing to maturity those habits of mind which enable them, bravely and cheerfully, to confront danger. There arises, besides, in all armies, when they are engaged in the operations of war, and exposed to its perils, a peculiar system of manners, which very materially assists the effect of positive institutions. From the ardour of zeal, emulation, and honour, which the situation in which soldiers are placed naturally produces, men are animated to unusual exertions of valour; they glory and rejoice in scenes, which the mind, in its natural state, contemplates with horror. It is only, also, in the perilous emergencies of real service, that a commander has an opportunity of securing the confidence, and conciliating the affections of his troops; by displaying courage, capacity, and presence of mind, in the midst of danger; by an unwearied attention to the comforts of the soldiers; by showing, on all occasions, a zealous attachment to the character and profession, and by cheerfully participating in all the dangers and privations to which they are exposed. By these means, all great generals have contrived to communicate to their troops an extraordinary portion of heroic zeal: by employing peculiar incentives, they have given new energy to all those principles on which the excellence of the military character depends, and have called forth in their service all those enthusiastic feelings which, in the hour of danger, animate the passions and fortify the heart. Men accustomed to this sort of training very soon acquire all those habits which teach them fearlessly to expose themselves to danger; and on those qualities of the mind entirely rests that grand discipline which exists between sol-

diers and men employed in peaceful occupations; and that superiority in the field which has always enabled armies to discomfit and disperse every kind of irregular force which has been rashly exposed to their attack.

It is, therefore, highly dangerous and impolitic in any state to rely for its security on the efforts of men who are not soldiers; who employ themselves only occasionally in acquiring mechanical dexterity in the use of arms, but who devote the chief portion of their time and attention to pursuits wholly different. It is impossible that men, placed in such circumstances, can ever acquire the characteristic habits and feelings of soldiers; and it has been found, by experience, that they have never been able to withstand the shock of a regular army. Whenever, therefore, the military force of any state is formed, either wholly or in part, of the unwarlike population of the country, who may, no doubt, be very easily assimilated in external appearance, but who never can acquire the real character of soldiers, great inconvenience and danger must result. In contriving a scheme of warlike operations, it is necessary to consider the nature and character of the troops to be employed. It would, no doubt, be extremely culpable in a commander, to waste the energies of a veteran force in feeble and indecisive warfare; but it would evidently lead to consequences still more disastrous, if raw and inexperienced levies were appointed to execute bold and offensive plans. But if the same army is composed of opposite kinds of troops, how is it possible to combine their exertions in the prosecution of one object? The mode of warfare to be pursued must either be adapted to the one sort of force or to the other. The regular army must either be clogged by the incumbrance of an inferior force, and the general system of military operations consequently enfeebled; or troops, imperfectly disciplined, must be ordered on service which they are not



qualified to perform, and may involve, in their defeat, the ruin of the whole body.

To assimilate new levies to regular soldiers, and to arrange them in solid battalions in the same line, is a very dangerous experiment. In all the various and unlooked for fluctuations of affairs which may occur in a battle, the new levies might be left alone to sustain the fiercest onset; and on their steadiness the event of the day might depend. By unforeseen accidents, they might be surrounded by perils, which it would require the collected fortitude of veterans to repel; they might be placed in positions which they could not maintain, or appointed to services which they could not perform. They cannot be qualified for any scheme of offensive hostility, or the attack of any important post, which, being defended by veteran troops advantageously posted, might not perhaps be carried but by the reiterated efforts of desperate intrepidity. The danger, therefore, of conjoining new levies in any great proportion with regular soldiers is manifest; and either in this case, or where the whole force of a country is composed of troops imperfectly disciplined, there is no chance of safety, in case of invasion, but by resorting to a system of defensive warfare, which, in an open or level country, can never be ultimately successful, except through the misconduct of the enemy, and which, even in a country abounding in strong positions, is of very doubtful issue. With a force imperfectly disciplined to check veteran troops by a judicious combination of scientific movements; to chuse positions so excellent as to bid defiance to the efforts of the most enterprising enemy, and so to fortify and secure them, that superior gallantry should be only a passport to destruction, requires such skill and talents, and such a series of prosperous chances, that it would be quite unsafe for any state to hazard its safety on such a rare conjunction. The invading army might, by rapid and daring hostility, render nugato-

ry a system of defensive tactics; they might force their enemy to a battle in defence of some capital object; and how uncertain and precarious would such a contest be, if success depended on the persevering valour of inexperienced troops!

An invader, who possesses an army excellently trained and disciplined, and who is opposed by a force of an inferior character, will ultimately succeed in his views, if he is sufficiently rapid and enterprising in his movements, so as to prevent both the spirit of adventure from languishing among his followers, and the invaded country from concentrating its physical strength; and where invasions in similar circumstances have not succeeded, it has only been because the hostile commander, instead of pursuing a system of bold and sanguinary hostility, has wasted the energies of his troops in feeble, indecisive, and protracted warfare, which, in his situation, leads more surely to destruction than the blindest temerity. How quickly did Suwarrow subdue the Polish insurgents, by the celerity of his motions, and the unparalleled boldness of his designs!

The events of war are determined by the united influence of discipline and tactics; and, consequently, the perfection of the military art is produced by a combination of skilful tactics with a high state of discipline. Were the distinction between those two sources of excellence well understood, and sufficiently attended to, it might lead to a more clear elucidation of events which have been but imperfectly accounted for on general principles, and have, for that reason, led to much mistake. A general may have brought his troops to the highest possible degree of discipline, but he may not have perfected a system of tactics in a corresponding degree; or an unskilful general may be entrusted with the command of excellent troops, and may be opposed by a more skilful commander with an army inferior in discipline; and the superiority of tactics on one side

may more than counterbalance an inferiority of discipline. But are we from thence rashly to infer, that troops, imperfectly disciplined, are a match for a veteran force, or that discipline has not a most important influence on the decision of battles? It might be argued, with equal propriety, that, in military operations, superiority of numbers is not a material advantage, because it has been frequently more than counterbalanced by the talents of a skilful general. The object of a great commander, who is well acquainted with his troops, and who has gained their confidence, is generally to bring his enemy to battle on fair and equal terms; and, if that object cannot be attained, to attack even at a disadvantage. His decision must be guided entirely by the circumstances of the case; and, in forming a correct estimate of the comparative advantages of the enemy's position, and of the superior discipline of his troops, the event of the battle, and his own character for prudence and judgment, must wholly depend.

Hannibal had brought his troops to a most astonishing state of discipline, and he had chosen a mode of warfare admirably adapted to display their warlike virtues: he always endeavoured to bring his enemy to battle on equal terms; and the event was constantly in his favour. The excellence of Fabius was chiefly manifested in his tactics; he had formed a correct estimate of the character, both of his own troops and that of the enemy; and he had chosen his defensive positions with such judgment, that Hannibal, with all the advantages of a highly disciplined force, did not think proper to hazard an attack. The successful execution of those manœuvres, by which he contrived to elude the effects of superior discipline, class him among the greatest generals. His troops, however, having been manœuvred for some time in the face of an enemy, must have very nearly approached to the standard of discipline generally to be found in armies; yet, in the battle of Cannæ,

it was seen how much inferior they were, in those qualities which constitute the perfection of soldiers, to Hannibal's veterans.

Turenne, it is said, was chiefly remarkable for his tactical skill; the great qualities of Condé were displayed, in battle, in inspiring his soldiers with heroic ardour and enthusiasm.

In the civil wars of Charles the first, there is no appearance of tactical skill; the battles were chiefly decided by discipline; and no man excelled Cromwell in the forming of troops. That singular character, by ingrafting military enthusiasm on religious fanaticism, brought the military character to unrivalled perfection, and decided the fortune of the war.

The talents of king William were principally displayed in awakening the enthusiasm of his soldiers. He committed great errors of conduct, but he possessed a heroic courage, which inflamed all about him. The obstacles which he surmounted in the defence of his country, would have staggered the resolution of common minds; and if the French generals had pushed their advantages with sufficient vigour, his resistance would have been ineffectual; but they allowed the war to assume a languid and indecisive character; and, meantime, the Dutch troops acquired, under the presiding genius of the prince of Orange, all the habits of soldiers, and were soon enabled to cope with their enemies in the field.

Marlborough seems to have united in his character all the qualities of a great general; to have combined skilful tactics with the most admirable discipline; not only to have excelled in perfecting his instrument, but to have been equally dexterous in using it with the best possible effect. His troops appear to have possessed, in the greatest perfection, all those qualities which, in the hour of peril, render the heart impregnable to panic or dismay; and they were led on to contend for victory and fame, by commanders



of tried courage and capacity, who exalted, by their own example, the ardour of their troops, to the highest possible elevation of heroic zeal. It was remarked in the battle of Ramillies, how conspicuously every officer of rank distinguished himself; and even the Dutch general Auverquerque, forgetting his years and infirmities, was seen every where in the hottest of the fire, encouraging and animating his men to prodigies of valour. Marlborough did not waste the energies of such troops in feeble and indecisive hostility; his mode of warfare was entirely adapted to the nature and character of the force which he commanded, and was calculated to display the effects of superior discipline; he hazarded every thing, and depended in battle on the tried fidelity and courage of his soldiers, and on the sure resources of his own genius, for a glorious result. He was fettered, when beginning his career, by the timid caution of the Dutch generals; but with such a force, and such a commander, it was prudence to attempt the boldest and most adventurous designs.

The superiority of Marlborough's troops, in steady and desperate valour, was recognized by his enemies, who felt themselves unable to withstand them in the field, and frequently deserted their strongest positions at his approach. The whole history, indeed, of his campaigns illustrates strikingly, so far at least as respects the relative discipline of the troops engaged, the theory of offensive and defensive war, and shows plainly how difficult it is to defend the strongest positions against an army very highly disciplined, and led on by a bold and enterprising commander.

The victories of Suwarrow are principally to be ascribed to the discipline of his troops; they had attained the highest perfection in all military qualities, and he accordingly employed them, almost entirely, in the boldest and most sanguinary operations of offensive hostility. The assault of Ismail and of War-

saw, and the attack of the French position at Novi, are almost unrivalled in the annals of military enterprise.

As, therefore, the success of military operations so materially depends on the discipline of the troops employed, nothing can be more impolitic than to rely on a force of inferior quality, and thus voluntarily to relinquish one of the requisite conditions either for acting offensively with effect, or for ensuring the speedy discomfiture of an invading enemy. The independence of such a state, when attacked by a regular army, though not exposed to certain destruction, must yet rest on a very insecure foundation. Its defence may no doubt be rendered possible, by a strong barrier of fortified towns, by the nature of a country abounding with strong positions, and by the unskilful management of the invading army.

If a commander, with a force trained and disciplined, after beating his enemy in the field, does not push his advantages with rapidity and vigour; if he allow them to recover from their consternation of his first victories; to recruit and reanimate their broken and disheartened troops; to secure their strong holds; and to consolidate the physical strength of the country against him, his ultimate ruin is certain. He ought never to allow his men to rest in pursuit of a routed foe; neither ought he to stand wavering and deliberating before passes and strong positions, but to appal his enemy by the rapidity of his movements, and the boldness of his designs; always considering, that the most sanguinary and desperate hostility is his surest policy, and that the blindest temerity does not lead more surely to destruction in the end, than a system of protracted and indecisive warfare.

As, therefore, a regular army, skilfully commanded, has always effected the ruin of a country defended by a less effective species of force, a nation ought to rest its security solely on a regular army; and if it



be thought expedient to arm the population of the country, it should form a force wholly and decisively irregular; not gathered into battalions, nor appointed to shock with the enemy in the regular conflict of the field. In a country especially which possesses few positions, either strong by nature or fortified by art, and arrived at such a state of improvement as to afford every facility for internal communication, the main reliance should be placed on a disciplined and disposable army, and it would be a rash and hazardous experiment to collect the unwarlike population into gross and solid masses, and expose it in the front of the battle to the charge of a practised assailant.

Though such, in general, are the best means of defence, they may not be, in all respects, applicable to the present situation of Great Britain; nor is there, in this case, so essential a difference between the volunteer and regular force, as to make us wish to see the former superseded in a great measure by the latter. The volunteers are not merely an armed multitude; they have been embodied for a number of years, and have attained, in many instances, to a very respectable state of discipline and knowledge. The money bestowed on them might perhaps have provided a more efficient and serviceable army; but this was a voluntary expenditure; and half the sum raised by compulsion would have been felt as a serious oppression. The volunteers, then, are too good to be parted with; and are certainly more fit for service than any other form of an armed population can possibly be.

The British volunteers, as they now are, are not only better than an armed multitude, but the regular army is something worse than the regular army of France, and does not seem to possess all those requisites which entitle it to be contrasted with forces of another kind. It is not being enlisted in a regular corps that can make a man a soldier, it is not receiving daily pay, nor appear-

ing twice a day on parade, nor being expert at the manual exercise, and familiar with the eighteen manœuvres. It is the experience of danger, it is a practical knowledge of the business of war, it is real service in the face of an enemy. There is but a small proportion of the regular army which can boast of this qualification. There are 16,000, perhaps, who were in Egypt\*, and about as many more who were in Holland, and in the West Indies; but the great body of the army has no military experience; and will be as new to actual service as the militia and volunteers. All they can boast of at present, then, is the exactness of parade discipline, and superior expertness in those exercises, in which it is not disputed that volunteers may be made to rival them. When the necessity of fighting comes, we have no doubt that they will rapidly acquire all the other requisites of the military character; but the volunteers, if they are called into action, will acquire them also; and if they start with the same advantages, as to mere bodily discipline and activity, they will probably acquire them as rapidly. A volunteer completely drilled is fit for any thing that a regular soldier is fit for, who has never seen service; and, if they are sent into the field together, will ripen into a veteran as soon as his comrade. It will not impair his martial ardour in any considerable degree, that, after he has learned all that he can learn out of actual service, he should work at a peaceable trade, instead of going about idle, till the occasion for service arrives; or, that he will fight the worse upon that occasion, for having a home and a family to fight for.

It must be owned, however, that the constitution of many of the volunteer corps is such, as to render

\* Yet before they went to Egypt, where they vanquished the flower of the French veterans, they were raw troops. E.

it extremely doubtful whether it would be prudent to bring them into actual service. They contain many, whose physical qualifications, and inveterate habits, unfit them for actual warfare; and many, who would do more valuable service to the country in other occupations. Those who are pointed out by nature as the fighting men of the country, are by no means to be all found in the ranks of the volunteers; and there are many there, who cannot be classed under that denomination. Some reduction, therefore, of the volunteer establishment would probably be advantageous; and still greater benefit would result from the practice of training a larger proportion of them to the exercises of irregular warfare. They should be carefully exercised in firing at marks, and in suddenly dispersing and assembling in small bodies, as well as in accomplishing considerable journeys, and providing for their shelter and subsistence, in cases of emergency: acting in this manner, in subserviency to the regular forces, they might be the means of the most dispiriting annoyance and fatal obstruction to the enemy, and secure a decisive victory, without ever encountering the hazard of a ruinous defeat.

One most important though hitherto neglected consideration, is the education and training of the officers, by whom the army, whether regular or irregular, is to be commanded. The two cardinal virtues of a military force are discipline and tactics. The former relates chiefly to the men; the latter, to the officers. Actual warfare is, undoubtedly, the best school for both; and the same circumstances which have prevented the regulars from acquiring all the habits of veteran soldiers, have no doubt thrown formidable obstacles in the way of the professional accomplishment of their commanders. Something, however, may certainly be done to promote these accomplishments; and something more than has yet been undertaken, or apparently meditated,

by government. Perhaps the reform should begin by prohibiting the sale of commissions; and establishing, through the country, a variety of military academies, where the youth might be regularly trained to a scientific knowledge of the principles of their profession. A general taste for such acquisitions might also be promoted, by the example of a few persons in eminent situations; and by the endowment of professorships, for the different branches of military science, in most of the universities. Encouragement should also be given to young men who would go abroad as volunteers into foreign services; and honours and promotion made the reward of those who brought back certificates of their gallantry and proficiency.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

THE NEAPOLITAN POST-OFFICE.

*By Kotzebue.*

AS we go from the place Largo del Castello to the mole, we must pass a corner where the lists of the letters arrived are hung out. As the throng of people is there at all times very considerable, it gives rise to some singularities which are confined to Naples. The letters are numbered, and the names of those to whom they are addressed are marked alphabetically, but these are the christian and not the surnames. This does not, however, apply to all without exception; for whoever has the good fortune to be a prince will have a place apart, marked by the letter P.

Many who cannot read come also to inquire if there are letters addressed to them. A shrewd fellow has converted the ignorance of these into a source of emolument. He stands there with a packet of blank papers in his hand: the person who wants his assistance approaches him, and, giving him a farthing or two, mentions his own name. The other

casts a glance immediately over the list, and, when he finds the name there, he does no more than write on a piece of paper the number under which it stands: this he gives to the inquirer, who hastens with it to the post-office, and receives his letter without ceremony: whether the receiver be right or not, is no matter of concern, if he will but pay the postage.

The letters of foreigners are not put on the list, but are thrown in a heap in the post-office. When a person of that description inquires for a letter, they direct him to the heap, which he turns over till he finds it, or is satisfied there is none for him. But, if he chuses, he may take one not addressed to him, provided he pays the postage, which is the only evidence required of its being his property. It may easily be imagined that disorders must necessarily arise from such a want of all arrangement. Every foreigner will do well to have his letters addressed to a banker.

But to return to the corner I before mentioned. The man who marks down the numbers is not the only one who has found a source of profit there, though indeed he collects his receipts with the most ease and convenience. There are half a dozen small tables in the street; and as many men sitting before them, with physiognomies as worn out as their coats. They hold pens in their hands, and a folded letter-case lies before them. They need only dip their pens in the ink-stands near them, and they are ready to write letters of any conceivable purport to every quarter of the habitable globe. A second chair opposite to theirs, invites the needy letter-sender to sit down, and communicate his thoughts to one who will give them the polish of good diction. Here we see an old woman; there an honest sailor; in a third place a warlike hero; and in the fourth a brisk lass: they have sons, and mothers, and all sorts of concerns of the heart, far and near, in the old and new world. The old mother, for example, takes

a seat (a scene that I have myself witnessed) opposite to the first writer, who had lost his nose (which is no uncommon thing here). He immediately puts his pen to paper: the date he had already written beforehand on the edge of the sheet, in order now to lose no time. He was right, for the good old dame is a little prolix. Her only son was roving about the world; and she wished him much to return, for she felt her latter end approaching. She affords proofs of her sickly condition by frequent coughing, which interrupts the torrent of words; and the shower of tears that frequently gushes down betrays the emotions of her mind. What I have comprehended in a short space, costs the poor old woman a multitude of words; which all imply the same thing, for she was in want of nothing less than expressions, her tongue appearing to be the healthiest part about her. The man listened patiently to her, digested her copious flow of thoughts with the greatest rapidity, and committed them with no less expedition to paper. The old woman put on a pair of spectacles, and followed every stroke of the writer's pen with strict attention. She often spoke in the mean time; recalling what she had forgotten, and making such amplifications as she found requisite. The gentleman of the quill paid no regard to her; but, having fathomed the spirit of the intended letter, wound it up with expedition, not letting his pen drop till he had brought himself through the labyrinth of conceptions to the close of the epistle. He then read it over to the old woman, who nodded approbation, and let a smile steal through her wrinkles. The dexterous penman presented her with the instrument for subscription; which, however, she declined at this time, *for various reasons*. He then desired her to spell her name, which he wrote; and, closing the letter with a wafer, put upon it the name and address of her son, and delivered it to the tottering old dame. She laid hold of the paper that expressed her



wishes, but not her ardour, with her left hand, and directed her right to her pocket: which, after much apparent trouble, at length reluctantly opened, and afforded a copper coin, which she gave to the writer, who had long stretched out his hand to receive it. She then hobbled with the letter to the post-office; and he quickly folded another sheet, unknowing and unconcerned whether he next should have to express the overflowings of a joyful or an afflicted heart.

All this correspondence is commonly conducted in such a loud and public manner, that the post-office has no occasion to break open the letters: it need only dispatch a few idle persons with good ears among the populace. Soldiers and sailors proclaim their affairs to the world without hesitation: their gesticulations while dictating are none of the gentlest, and they often beat with vehemence on the table of the writer. It might indeed be more difficult for a listener to catch the sensations of a bashful maid. I have seen some of this description also sitting and dictating, and I will venture to affirm, that the letters were to the constant or inconstant ones who had stolen their hearts: but I have no other proof of this than the unintelligible whispering, the downcast looks, the varied colour of the cheeks, on her side, and the friendly glances of the secretary.

These men of genius have, however, not erected their pulpits in the street for only the dispatch of letters, but also to decypher such as arrive for those who cannot read. On the day when the post comes in, a different scene is exhibited from that which we have just enjoyed. All pens are at rest: the lips only are in motion; and, as may be easily conceived, there is another interesting supply for the curious observer. The fixed attention with which the hearer hangs on the lips of the reader, the varying passions, the accomplished or defeated hopes of the former are well contrasted with the perfect indifference of the

latter, and the unchanged voice with which he proclaims both joyful and melancholy news. Such various scenes are to be witnessed nowhere but in the open street. A friend of mine was once present upon a droll occasion of this kind. A sailor received a letter which he appeared to have waited for with the greatest impatience, and carried eagerly to the reader. The latter unfolded the paper, and commenced with the greatest unconcern the following billet, while the rejoiced sailor appeared ready to seize the words out of his mouth: "A greater rascal than you I never saw." It may be easily imagined how the looks of the gaping sailor were in an instant changed. He had no inclination to hear a continuance of the letter in the presence of a laughing crowd; but snatched it out of the hand of the reader, and crept away uttering imprecations.

We daily meet with these street-pulpits, surrounded with more or less bustle; and it is a characteristic of the Italians, in which they distinguish themselves from the French, that they display their ignorance without hesitation. The common French are just as little able to read as the Italians, but they never can be brought to acknowledge this to others. The Frenchman is vain and ignorant; the Italian ignorant only.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

AN EMIGRANT IN AMERICA.

THERE cannot be a more extreme contrast to any country that has been long under cultivation, or a scene more totally new to a native of Great Britain, than the boundless forests of America. An emigrant set down in such a scene feels almost the helplessness of a child. He has a new set of ideas to acquire: the knowledge which all his previous experience has accumulated can seldom be applied; his ignorance as

to the circumstance of his new situation meets him on every occasion. The disadvantages to which he is thereby subjected are so great, that emigrants who are taken at once from Europe to such a situation, and abandoned to their own exertions without aid or guidance, rarely avoid involving themselves in inextricable difficulties. To settlers of this description, success can be insured only by well calculated arrangements, and an unremitted attention in directing their efforts.

When the new settler is fixed on his land, his difficulties are not at an end: he is still exposed to much waste of time, and can seldom proceed in his work without interruption. He must first procure provisions; and, though no pecuniary difficulty should occur, he generally, from his ignorance of the country, loses more time than necessary in this business. In bringing them home, he often finds himself much at a loss, from the wild and almost impassable state of the roads through the woods; the same difficulty occurs whenever any article, however inconsiderable, is wanted from the mill, the forge, or the store. From the want of a general attention to keep the settlements compact, and within reach of mutual assistance, most of the people who begin on new and untouched land are reduced to a situation of more than savage solitude. The new settler from Europe is unacquainted with the methods, by which a practised *woodsman* can find his way through the trackless forest. Every time he leaves his hut he is exposed to the danger of being bewildered and lost; if he has been sufficiently warned of this danger to teach him the requisite degree of attention, still he can feel no confidence that his children will have the same caution; and must still shudder, when he thinks of the howling wilderness that surrounds him. The horror of these impressions has, in many instances, completely unnerved the mind of the settler, and rendered him incapable of any vigorous exertion.

So many instances are quoted of the ill success of Europeans, when placed at once in the heart of the wild woods, that I have heard several gentlemen, of the highest abilities and experience in the United States, pronounce an unqualified opinion, that a new settlement could not be formed without a basis of native Americans. In most cases this is true, though the prosperity of the Scottish colony, at Prince Edward's Island, must be allowed to form an exception to the rule.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

#### METEORIC STONES.

MOST persons are now familiar with the history of what has been called atmospheric or meteoric stones. Their origin, however, is still a mystery: whether they are projected from lunar volcanoes, or suddenly compounded in the regions of air, is a question not likely to be soon, if ever, decided.

Among the various theories which this subject has produced, I have been much amused with the following one, lately given by a French philosopher. According to him ignivomous mountains were, in ancient times, indued with mighty force, though, like the race of mortals in Homer's day, they had sadly degenerated from their ancestors. Without staying to examine the causes of this deplorable degradation, or to reduce to consistency the expiring energies of volcanic projection, with the accumulating intensity of the central heat, it appears not all improbable, to this fiery champion, that, from the said mountains, masses of matter were propelled from an immense depth, to such a height, as to perform spiral circumgyrations, somewhere within the limits of our planetary system, till, in the course of ages, they came to pop down, and take their rest on the surface of mother earth.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

HENRY THE FOURTH'S PROJECT  
OF A CHRISTIAN REPUBLIC.

AMONG the various problems which have exercised the ingenuity and displayed the learning of historical critics, none has received a degree of attention less proportioned to its importance, than the grand design imputed to Henry IV of France, which was just beginning to be executed at the time of his death. That a prince, of whose fame the annals of Europe are full, stopped in the midst of his victorious career to form a project which should secure the future peace of the world; that he actually devoted the rest of his days to the accomplishment of this undertaking, and even made some progress, in surmounting the obstacles with which it was attended, is a statement equally important and strange.

As often as the balance of power is mentioned, men recur to the chimerical project of Henry IV, and declaim on the absurdity of attempting any similar arrangement, because the impracticability of the most perfect form of that system is admitted.

Let us examine whether this famous scheme bears any relation to the external policy of modern times, known by the name of the balancing system; and whether it is, in any of its parts, founded on the principles by which that system is supported. No discussion can be frivolous which leads us to review a character so highly rated as that of Henry *the great*, and to examine impartially, by one important test, his claims to that renown for political wisdom and integrity, which mankind have, with rare unanimity, been so zealous to bestow on him. Besides, it will teach us the folly of all great political schemes, depending on the life of one man, and serve to encourage those politicians of the present day, who anticipate so much from

the conquering and revolutionizing efforts of the living French monarch; efforts, which like those of his great predecessor, will be baffled and extinguished by the inevitable death that awaits him.

Henry is said to have proposed that Europe should be formed into a great commonwealth, under the respectable title of the *christian republic*. The emperor was to be placed at its head, with high authority over the confederacy, and increased powers in his private capacity of Germanic chief. The extent of his prerogative was productive of little danger, because it was proposed that his office should be always conferred *according to merit*. In order to insure this excellent expedient, Henry intended to make the imperial dignity elective, and added a prohibition against conferring it twice in succession on the same family. He farther thought proper that it should be given first to the house of Bavaria; and that this natural rival of the Austrian dynasty should receive, in perpetuity, all the neighbouring provinces of the natural enemy of France. The house of Austria was likewise to lose all its hereditary possessions in Europe, except Spain; and what is still more whimsical, the king of France, who proposed this scheme, is said only to have reserved for himself the glory of conceiving this grand project. In return for these sacrifices, Austria was presented with the absolute and entire possession of every inhabited country out of Europe, either then known, or afterwards discovered; the only restriction upon her colonial supremacy being a reservation in favour of free commerce.

Men have laughed as much at the famous bull of Paul, as they have admired the plan of Henry; yet there was nothing half so absurd in the pope's grant of the new world, which began and ended in a statement of abstract right, as this provision of the French monarch, by which the same right was to be for-



cibly maintained, and Europe was to conquer all the other parts of the world for the benefit of that power which it had violently stript of its lawful possessions at home.

The possessions of Austria were to be partly given away, partly new modelled; and various new states and unions of states were to arise from the fragments of that great monarchy, on the confines of the empire. A republic was to be formed of the Netherlands together with Holland. Hungary and Bohemia were to become elective monarchies; the choice being vested in the pope and the six hereditary potentates of France, Spain, England, Sweden, Denmark, and Lombardy. Poland was to be made elective in the same manner; and each of these three was to be increased by new possessions forcibly taken from other powers. The succession of Cleves was to be portioned out among such of the Germanic princes as France then favoured, and Austria opposed. The pope was to have all Naples, and to be made chief of the Italian federal republic, a body composed of all the Italian states except Lombardy and the Milanese, which were reserved for the kingdom of the duke of Savoy. Sicily, a member of this republic, was designed as a present to Venice; and Switzerland was to receive Franche-Compte and Alsace with a permanent oligarchical constitution.

The *christian republic*, thus formed by plunder and usurpation, was to begin its operations by persecution. Three different creeds were to be permitted, and all sects instantly extinguished. Moreover, every power not professing the christian faith was to be expelled from Europe; and the czar of Muscovy, being a true believer, was to be offered a corner in the grand confederacy, which if he refused, he was immediately to be stript of his European dominions, and sent off to Asia after the sultan. Much has been said of the balance of religion, in consequence of the spiritual part of this

project; and, truly, if the phrase has any meaning, it is as difficult to comprehend it, as the connection between the temporal arrangements of the plan and the balance of power.

The principal means by which the scheme was to be executed, was main force. The overtures being made to certain powers, it was proposed, that a large army should instantly be raised by such as agreed, for compelling the rest to agree. The overtures were accordingly made, and much astonishment has been expressed at their favourable reception. We are told, that most of the European princes came readily into the scheme, and that a certain prospect was obtained of raising at least half the forces required. This has been deemed the most wonderful part of the story; and those who can scarcely believe that a prince of Henry's wisdom seriously formed so chimerical a plan, are still less disposed to admit that he found the obstacles to its execution so easily surmounted. But let us consider whether there be really any thing wonderful in any part of the statement; whether the basis of the plan was romantic virtue, or that ambition after impossibilities, which we denominate splendid folly, or only a more ordinary love of aggrandizement, couched under a pretext of heroism too thin to conceal it; let us inquire, whether the reception which the proposals are said to have met with, might not have been expected from their own nature, and the circumstances of those to whom they were addressed. There is no task more instructive than that of destroying the wonders of history, and reconciling the strange passages of great men's lives with their general character and situation.

The plan of Henry IV was evidently a scheme for the utter extirpation of all those principles which are in favour with modern politicians. Under the name of perpetual peace, a name in which every treaty is concluded, the whole of

Europe was to be instantly involved in a war, than which, no former hostility was more general or unsparing. In order to change the names, numbers, and sizes of the different members of the commonwealth, a universal pillage was to take place; and those who refused to plunder were to enjoy the satisfaction of being plundered. In this way, all the evils pretended to be destroyed were produced and aggravated. Europe was to be plunged in hostilities, that peace might, at some future period, be, contrary to the nature of human affairs, perpetual; those changes of dominion, for which war is chiefly dreaded, were to be the first step in the progress of the pacific system; treachery and usurpation were to be enforced by present war, that war might not, at some future period, spring from treachery and usurpation, or be found necessary to prevent them.

The balance of power is no more than a union to prevent all changes of dominion; a constant check on the ambition of princes; a plan for defending the weak against the strong. All this system is at an end, if the strong unite to arrange the dominion of the world, to parcel out states according to their own fancy or interest, to spoil those who dare not resist, and to overwhelm, by an irresistible league, such as are powerful or brave enough to oppose. The longest tranquillity might be the consequence of rooting out all the seeds of dissention; peace may flourish when all are destroyed who have a right to defend or regain their rights by war. So much the worse. Injustice and wrong, in their worst forms, will then enjoy a secure triumph, and the evil has only gained the quality of being irreparable. The *solitudinem quem faciem aspiciant* was never more fully realized by the usurpations of ancient Rome, or of modern France, than by the plan of universal equity and peace ascribed to Henry the great.

The iniquity of this scheme is easily proved; but its folly, with re-

gard to the selfish and exclusive interests of France, is not quite so apparent. If other advantages than the chimerical one of perpetual peace could be secured to Henry by the co-operation of certain foreign powers, he showed no want of foresight, by his attempts to seduce them with bribes, and to blind the mass of mankind with a council of amphyctyons. There is, indeed, no room to wonder at the folly of the plan by which France was to get rid, at once, of her great rival, to surround herself with petty states of her own creation, and to share the whole power of the continent with a few other nations, so impotent that they must be led by her, or so distant from the scene of action as to have no chance of ever taking part in any critical emergency. Such a plan we see actually revived by Henry's successor at the present day. The indemnities all came from Austria or her allies, from the rival or the enemies of France. The favours were bestowed on her friends, or on such new states as the circumstances of the union must throw at her mercy.

We need not consider the ultimate effects of the scheme, when it is plain that its execution was never seriously intended. If the proposal could induce the chief powers of the continent to take part in the humiliation of Austria, the end of France was served; a few years of co-operation were abundantly sufficient to reward her for the trouble of inventing a grand plan of a *christian republic*, sufficient to make her mistress of all she had been fighting for, of all she has since gained by her arts and her arms.

Nor was there any thing so absurd in the outward appearance of Henry's plan, when skilfully dressed up by his *Jeannins* and his *Sullys*. The ideas of men, even in the present age, are so vague on such subjects, that we constantly meet with errors, at least as gross as that which Henry's project was intended to inculcate. The partition of Poland has been defended as tending to the



general equilibrium ; and the ablest living writer on these matters has almost fallen into the same mistake. Gentz has argued, as if the chief object of general policy were to preserve certain great states, and consolidate smaller communities into large empires, forgetting that the *balance of power* has no meaning, unless it be applied to all existing states, and that the universal monarchy of one nation is only to be dreaded, as causing the general ruin of those which enjoy present independence. To the same illusion Henry's plan must have looked for a favourable reception with the bulk of mankind, and with those powers to whom it might be simply proposed, without the offer of new dominions, which generally accompanied the disclosure. To persuade a few neighbouring princes that their independence was the great end of all foreign policy ; that, provided they flourished in freedom, it mattered not how little regard was paid to other potentates ; that the cause of Europe meant their interests ; was a doctrine which less skill and eloquence than the president's and the duke's might easily have enforced. But other means, in fact, were used to secure the active co-operation for which those general topics served as the pretexts.

The parties to whom he confided the scheme, were, the pope, the Venetian and Swiss republics, the duke of Savoy, the electors of Mentz, Cologne, Bavaria, and the elector Palatine ; the nobles of Hungary and Bohemia, certain free towns, and others. The pope was to receive a whole kingdom (Naples) in real sovereignty, with the nominal supremacy of all Italy, and a place among the electors-general ; not to mention the opportunity of persecuting infidels and sectaries.

Venice was to receive Sicily : certainly the richest present with which the masters of the Adriatic could be bribed. No wonder that no pains were taken to acquaint the king of Sicily and Naples with these proceedings, which interested him as

much as the pope and Venice. He was to fall under the ban of the new christian republic ; the secret was to be imparted by heralds, and put home to him by lances. The duke of Savoy, too, was safely apprised of a project which was to give him a rich crown, and exalt him from the lowest to the highest rank among the princes of Europe. It is not recorded that he made any objections to the plan ; no doubt he was persuaded of its excellent tendency to secure the peace of the world, and never hinted the propriety of disclosing the scheme to the rightful owners of the realms which he was to receive. The Hungarian and Bohemian nobles, who formed a feudal and factious aristocracy, naturally preferred any change which destroyed the present hereditary dynasty, and gave each of them a chance for a crown. All who were to be benefited by the project were made privy to it, and zealously engaged to assist in the execution. Those who were to be ruined by the scheme were spared the pain of knowing its existence ; and those who were only remotely affected had not time to give their full attention to the subject, before its author was numbered with the victims of the scheme so happily accomplished on St. Bartholomew's day.

That a prince of Henry's plain good sense and intimate acquaintance with affairs should have formed the design of giving perpetual peace to the world by means infinitely more chimerical than ever entered the head of a cloistered enthusiast, might indeed excite our wonder. But there is nothing very surprising, that an ambitious and patriotic monarch, flushed with domestic conquest, should resolve to foment divisions among his foreign enemies, and raise such a party in his own favour as might spare the armies of France, while it raised her to the highest pitch of influence. Under pretence of giving peace to Europe, a pretence addressed not to his coadjutors whom he was bribing with spoil, but to the world at large



like all the appeals made in manifestoes and proclamations, he was only exciting a war of partition, and giving a new position to the balance in favour of France. He did not try to form coalitions by describing the real interests of his neighbours in diplomatic conferences, nor did he expect to make foreign armies march into the field by argument and declamation on the propriety of hostilities. His reasoning was much more practical; it was levelled to the mean capacities of courts, as it was drawn from a thorough knowledge of their nature. To one he said, 'Attack the house of Austria, and you shall have Lombardy for your share of the spoil;' to another, 'Go to war, and here are fifty thousand men to assist you.' These were the topics seriously insisted on by Henry; and he knew them to be wonderfully suited to the comprehension of kings and ministers. That he ever looked beyond the first movements of his coalition, it would be absurd to imagine. His end was gained if Austria was attacked on all sides. Having secured Germany, the pope, the duke of Savoy, and Switzerland, by liberal offers of pillage; having made some progress in keeping the northern powers quiet by negotiation, and probably by secret offers also; and having succeeded in exciting the utmost discontent among the subjects of some of the Austrian provinces, no doubt can be entertained of his final, and even speedy success, to the whole extent of his wishes, had he lived longer, or been followed by less peaceful successors.

The reception of his plan, therefore, where he propounded it, is not more wonderful than the structure of the scheme itself. Those who imagine that its perfidy suited ill with Henry's general good faith, and other moral qualities, may be reminded that the monarch who could carelessly plunge his country and his neighbours in all the horrors of war, to gratify a passion for a silly woman, was not very likely to feel squeamish about gratifying

a passion for empire. The character of this singular person is in truth too mixed and motley to admit of any positive inference drawn from his supposed moral rectitude.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

FROM Clovis to Charlemagne France was governed by the Merovingian dynasty, which expired about the middle of the eighth century, and gave way to Pepin, and his son Charlemagne. There were three-and-thirty of these monarchs, great and small, without reckoning the four from Pharamond to Clovis, who, like the four first lines of the *Æneid*, (*Ille ego*) have a doubtful sort of claim to authenticity, and are put on or struck off according to the fancy of the author.

As to the manner of life of these princes, they maintained an oriental establishment of wives and concubines, put out the eyes of their brothers and nephews when they came in their way, were very much afraid of the bishops, drove about the streets of Paris in a waggon drawn by buffaloes, trusted the management of their affairs to their mayors of the palace, and wore very long hair.

The singular faculty of propagating long-haired children ran in the family of Merovæus: their young highnesses were known by it, like the ogre's children by their crowns, or prince Cherry and princess Fairstar by combing pearls out of their locks. Like Samson of old, their whole strength lay in this hair; the moment one of them was shaved, there was an end of him; not a Frank had instinct enough to own such a wight for the true prince. We cannot indeed say much for the inner lining of the skull in these shepherds of the people. They acquired the name of *insensati*, *faineans*, or *fools*. This was not a

libel, a pasquinade, an impertinent sally of plebeian wit. A grave chronicler, as dry as dry can be, relates this little circumstance in their characters as a matter of course. *Post Dagabertum, regnavit Daniel, clericus insensatus, frater ejus; post Chilpericum, regem insensatum, regnavit, solo nomine, Hendericus insensatus, consanguineus ejus; post Hendericum, regnavit, solo nomine, Childericus insensatus, frater ejus.*

In English, thus: "After Dagabert came Daniel, a fool of a priest, his brother; after Chilperick a foolish king, reigned his kinsman, Henderick, *the silly*; after Henderick, reigned his brother, Childerick, *the fool*. All these were mere pageants of royalty, governing only in name."

It has been suggested by some of the learned, that, from the constant conjunction of long hair and folly in these Gallic potentates, mankind have, as usual, inferred the relation of cause and effect to have subsisted between them, and assuming, rather illogically, the converse of the proposition to be true, have rivetted in their minds that association of wigs and wisdom which has so greatly redounded to the glory and profit of modern doctors and peruke-makers.

Like the corresponding history of England during the heptarchy, the annals of these princes are ineffably wearisome and uninteresting. Whether the Offas and the Pendas, the Chilpericks and the Dagaberts, had a vice more or less, we have as little solicitude to inquire, as about any question which the busy dæmon of controversy can possibly suggest. The sublime porte does not trouble itself, said the reis effendi to an ambassador, who communicated a victory of his master's, whether the dog beats the hog, or the hog beats the dog. We care as little, whether in any one given year during an age of anarchy a greater number was slain in one horde of barbarians or another. These are the ups and downs of savage warfare, which are occasionally varied by the *fluctus decumani*, the grand

revolutions, by which the fate of nations has been affected.

In one instance, perhaps, a man may excusably wish to look a little into the annals of this period. Brunehaut was queen of Austrasia and Burgundy, and rival of the no less notorious Fredegonde, who, in the year 613, was dragged at the tail of a vicious horse, for the amusement of a humane conqueror and his polished camp. Concerning this princess the antiquaries and historians of France have been debating for some centuries, the greater part maintaining her to have been a monster of guilt, while some espouse her defence with as much zeal as was felt by the three hundred gallant Franks, who swore, that a child, of which Fredegonde had been delivered, was the actual offspring of her husband. Yet when we recollect, that some great philosophers have declared, that the dispute about the guilt of the Scottish Mary, connected as it is with so many illustrious characters, heightened by so many associations of sentiment and romantic circumstance, and embellished by such ingenuity and eloquence, has excited no curiosity in their breasts, one is half ashamed to express any curiosity about so obsolete and remote a personage as Brunehaut.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

#### ANECDOTE OF STERNE.

DUTENS, in his Memoirs, lately published, relates the following anecdote of Sterne, which throws additional light on that eccentric and faulty character.

Nous étions au tems de l'anniversaire de la naissance du roi d'Angleterre: milord Tavistock invita, ce jour-là, le peu d'Anglais qui étaient à Paris, à dîner avec lui pour le célébrer. Je fus de la partie, où je ne trouvai de ma connaissance que ceux avec qui j'étais venu à Paris. Je fus assis entre milord Berkeley, qui allait à Turin, et le fameux Sterne, auteur de *Tristram Shandy*,



regarde comme le Rabelais de l'Angleterre. On fut fort gai pendant le dîner, et l'on but à l'Anglaise, et selon le jour. La conversation vint à tomber sur Turin, où plusieurs de la compagnie allaient; sur quoi M. Sterne m'adressant la parole, me demanda si j'y connaissais M. D\*\*\*, en me nommant; je lui dis qu'oui, et même fort intimement. Toute la compagnie se prit à rire; et Sterne, qui ne me croyait pas si près de lui, s'imagina que ce M. D\*\*\* devait être un homme assez bizarre, puisque son nom seul faisait rire ceux qui l'entendaient. N'est-ce pas un homme un peu singulier? ajouta-t-il tout de suite. Oui, repris-je, un original. Je m'en étais bien douté, continua-t-il; j'ai entendu parler de lui et là-dessus il se mit à faire mon portrait, auquel je fis mine d'acquiescer; et voyant que le sujet rejouissait la compagnie, il se mit à inventer, dans la fertilité de son esprit, plusieurs contes à sa façon, qu'il fit durer, au grand plaisir de tous, jusqu'à ce que l'heure vint de se séparer. Je sortis le premier; et à peine fus-je hors de la maison, qu'on lui dit qui j'étais: on lui donna à entendre que, par respect pour milord Tavistock, je m'étais contenu; mais que je n'étais pas traitable, et qu'il pouvait s'attendre à me voir, le lendemain, lui demander raison des méchans propos qu'on lui persuada qu'il avait tenus de moi. Il crut, en effet, qu'il avait poussé la raillerie trop loin; car il était un peu gai: il vint, le jour suivant, me trouver, et me demander pardon de ce qu'il pouvait avoir dit qui m'eût déplu, s'excusant sur la circonstance, et sur la démanaison qu'il avait eue d'amuser un peu la compagnie, qu'il y avait vue si bien disposée, dès qu'il avait prononcé mon nom; mais je l'arrêtai tout court, en l'assurant que je m'étais amusé de son erreur autant qu'un autre; qu'il n'avait rien dit qui pût m'offenser; et que, s'il connaissait l'homme dont il avait parlé, aussi bien que je le faisais, il en aurait pu dire beaucoup plus de mal. Il fut enchanté de ma réponse, m'embrassa, me demanda mon amitié, et me quitta fort satisfait de moi.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

VACCINATION.

THE following statement has been circulated in England, by W.

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Neyle, of Dorsetshire: "As the superiority of the vaccine or cow pock over the small pox may, perhaps, be best seen, by a comparative view of their different effects, I think it may be of public utility to make known the result of the observations respecting both diseases, as they fell under my notice, during the progress of a general inoculation, which took place here, and in the adjoining parish of Burlston, this month; in the first week of which I inoculated with variolous or small pox matter 336 patients, 30 of whom had been inoculated with cow pox matter last summer, and two four years since, by myself, and four more by other gentlemen. These 36 were now inoculated for their own satisfaction. I *now* also vaccinated 12, of whom two were variolated within *forty-eight* hours after the insertion of the vaccine fluid; the other ten, with nine others who had before this time passed the cow pox, stood their chance without further inoculation. The result has been as follows:—Of those variolated, viz. 300, although strictly dieted, well physicked, and, in general, highly and commendably attentive to all my directions (which were rigidly cool and antiphlogistic), and although the weather has been tolerably favourable for the season (a brisk north, or north-east wind prevailing generally during the month) 10 have had a more than common sprinkling of pustules, occasioning a good deal of trouble to their friends; 45 have had it so heavy as to require constant attendance, both by night and day, during the eruptive fever and state of maturation, having been *all* for a shorter or longer period blind; ten have been so dangerously ill as to demand regular medical attendance, and have recovered with much difficulty, and, in one or two instances, even against hope; and one has actually fallen a victim to the disorder: *whereas all* (in number 57) who had been before, or were at this time vaccinated, escaped contagion from the small pox, although they lived intermixed with



those sick in that disorder, in the same village, under the same roofs, nay, in the same chambers with them, having passed what can scarcely be termed a disease, without pain to themselves, or trouble to their friends, without attention to diet or regimen, and—what may be thought still better—without *physic*!”

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

#### ARE THEATRICAL EXHIBITIONS USEFUL?

THE usefulness of theatres is a question that has often been discussed, but, perhaps, never in a manner perfectly satisfactory. Subjects of this kind are very complex, and the foundation of our reasonings lies much deeper than is commonly supposed. The question may be stated in the compass of a page, but could not be thoroughly discussed in less than a volume.

Three things are necessary to a theatrical exhibition; a drama, actors, and auditors.

We may consider the drama as it is in itself; we may analyze this mode of composition, and determine its power and efficacy as an instrument of morals; we may inquire what the dramatic art is capable of doing.

But this art has already been employed to some purpose, good or bad. Dramas having been written in considerable numbers, it is a momentous question what the tendency of these identical dramas is, and whether they inculcate falsehood or truth. In order to this, an accurate acquaintance with dramatic authors is necessary: to this we must add a knowledge of the actual history of mankind, and an investigation of the influence which certain plays have actually had upon human manners.

Plays may be written and read, but not exhibited. Whatever influence theatrical exhibitions may have, the tenor of the piece performed must have some share in produ-

cing it. On this question we are not concerned to ask, merely, what influence plays may have on the writer or reader, but what is the share of influence they possess in a public exhibition.

The tragedy of Cato has been performed a certain number of times: so have “The Jealous Husband,” and “A Trip to the Jubilee.” Certain effects have been produced, and numerous causes have each borne a part in producing these effects. One of these causes is the nature of the scene exhibited. What consequences have flowed from the peculiar structure of these three dramas? A question not easily solved. To this influence, whatever it be, there are two kinds of persons subject, actors and auditors; and, in weighing this influence, a just attention must be paid to this distinction.

Plays have been very numerous. This circumstance, among others, obliges managers to make a selection from them. Different managers, or the same managers at different periods, may make different selections. In order to arrive at a useful or exact decision, therefore, it behoves us to confine our inquiries to some particular period or place. If the tendency of all plays be the same or similar, differing from each other not at all, or differing only in degree, this nicety will be superfluous; but if the tendency of different plays be opposite, a theatrical exhibition, so far as its influence is modified by the nature of the scene, may, under different managers, produce opposite effects.

This is only one among three points of view, in which the subject ought to be considered. It is not, perhaps, of chief, but it is of indispensable importance. It cannot be denied that the influence of theatrical exhibitions is, *in part*, to be ascribed to the texture of the pieces performed. But it would not be proper to suppose that other circumstances have not their share of influence, be it greater or less.

Acting being a trade, it is to be inquired, first, what influence this

trade has on the morals or happiness of those who follow it? and secondly, what share the personal character of actors has, in producing the effects that flow from theatrical exhibitions?

Plays are performed to numerous auditories, under a roof, at certain hours of the day, for a stated price to each auditor, and with certain appendages and decorations. None of these circumstances are to be overlooked in a candid discussion of this subject, because they accompany every dramatic performance, and because none of them are neutral or indifferent with regard to the effects produced by this species of amusement on the morals and happiness of mankind.

To examine all these points with suitable accuracy; to furnish an impartial mind with just conceptions of the usefulness or hurtfulness of these establishments; to enable him to judge whether it be his duty to discountenance or encourage them; and to apprize him of the means most suitable to that end which shall appear to be the best, would be conferring no small benefit on mankind.

E.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

REMARKS ON SHORT-HAND WRITING.

SHORT-HAND has grown considerably into use of late years. In some schools in Great Britain it has been adopted as a part of ordinary education, and the authors of schemes of short-hand writing are never tired of dwelling on its excellencies and advantages. It may, therefore, be worth while to reflect a moment upon the possibility and limits of this accomplishment.

Penmanship is an art of the highest value, and, in the instruction of youth, the utmost stress should be laid upon it. No pains should be spared, at an age when the muscles are pliant and the joints flexible, to

create the habits of a skilful penman. This skill, it is obvious to remark, comprehends two things, legibility and swiftness.

It may seem superfluous to dwell upon the importance of *legibility*. No argument seems necessary to prove, that one of the most essential qualities of good writing is, that it may easily be read; and yet, nothing is more rare than to find writing that possesses this quality, even in a small degree. The power of comparing and inferring, in the human mind, is so great, and this power, in relation to written characters, is so much improved by exercise, that most penmen place an excessive and unreasonable confidence in it, and neglect almost every rule by which writing is made easily and accurately legible.

This negligence arises from the desire of expedition. In transcribing our own words, or those of others, the movements of the hand are necessarily much more tardy than those of the imagination or the tongue. Having thoughts and words in possession, we are impatient of that dilatory progress which the hand is obliged to make in rendering them permanent and visible. Thus we hasten to the end, at the cost of elegance and perspicuity, and omit, or distort, syllables and letters, so that none but those accustomed to our pen, or those versed in the business of decyphering, can make out our meaning; and he, indeed, must transcend his fellows by a wondrous distance, whose characters not only can be read, but read with absolute facility.

How far may these excellencies be attained? In what degree may swift penmanship be united with legible, is a question which every student should be at great pains to decide. There are many whose sole trade is penmanship, and many more whose professions require the very frequent use of it. To such, it is not easy to overrate the importance of this inquiry.

But few questions are harder to decide than this. We see, in num-



berless instances, the astonishing swiftness and accuracy to which the movements of the hand and fingers can be brought. In managing the bow of a violin, or touching the keys of a harpsichord, the quickness and exactness of motions are such as to wear, to an unpractised observer, the appearance of something preternatural. There are limits, no doubt, to our powers in all these respects; but these limits are scarcely definable, and certain it is, that no length of practice, though every hour bring us nearer, will ever, in the longest life, enable us to reach these limits.

In discussing this subject with a friend of mine, who has been long used to the pen, he proposed to reduce the question, in some degree, to the test of experiment, and to try, not what is possible for one, by long practice, to do, but what he or I, by fully or intensely exerting the moderate skill which each possessed, was already qualified to do.

Our first experiment was to ascertain the time in which a given quantity of words could be read. For which end we took, as a book to which most readers have access, the Dublin edition of Gibbon's History. A full page, that is, a page without notes, was found to contain 43 lines, and, on an average, 390 words, and 650 syllables.

This page we found could be read by the eye, without moving the lips, and with the utmost swiftness consistent with the comprehension of its meaning, in *one minute*.

It was then read aloud, with a distinct but very rapid articulation, in *two minutes and a half*.

It was then read deliberately and emphatically, with the due intervals and pauses, in *five minutes*.

We then proceeded to compare the eye and the tongue with the pen. My friend took paper and transcribed the page which had just been read, first, in his swiftest hand, and next, with deliberation and exactness. The first copy was far from being illegible. It was much better than the hand which thousands of

merchants, lawyers, and authors habitually employ. Still, however, it was somewhat indistinct, and could not be read so easily as the printed page. This copy was finished in a very little less than *ten minutes*, and was executed in what I will call a *current hand*. (*Festinatè.*)

The second copy was extremely regular and fair. All words were separate, and all the letters complete and distinct, and no one could wish to peruse characters more legible. This second copy was finished in a little less than *twenty minutes*, and was done in what may be called a *deliberate hand*. (*Lentè.*)

Allowances must always be made for casual intermissions and diversions of the eye and hand, both in reading and writing, but these allowances cannot be computed in general. Every reader must calculate them for himself. Meanwhile I state, with all its circumstances, what has actually been done. All cannot do this; but all, with slight efforts, may do this; and many there undoubtedly are who can effect much more than this. Now what are the inferences?

It appears that what may be hastily, but *silently* read in one minute, will require a period ten times longer to write it hastily, and twenty times longer to write it at leisure.

A rapid articulation appears to exceed the *current pen* by three-fourths; and the deliberate articulation exceeds the pen *in haste* only by *one half*, and the pen *at leisure* by *three fourths*.

Till this experiment was made, I had been far from thinking the pen so dispatchful a tool. I had no previous conception that what was properly spoken or read in twenty minutes, could be adequately transcribed in forty.

Before extraordinary modes of abbreviating writing be sought, we should investigate the powers of the methods already in use: and it is far more wise to carry known modes to higher perfection, than to invent new ones.

An obvious method of contraction



consists in *omission*. For the sake of speed, we may omit letters, syllables, or words. It is manifest that a word may be easily read, notwithstanding the omission of some of its letters or syllables, and that sentences may be intelligible, in which one or more words are omitted. It is difficult to say to what extent these various kinds of omission may be carried without producing difficulty or obscurity. But certainly every hour's practice will lessen the difficulty which at first existed.

The bones and sinews of every language, but especially of our's, are its consonants. Suppose our scheme of writing should entirely drop the use of vowels; or, at least, in all the cases in which, as observation and experience may teach us, the disuse of them will not occasion ambiguity.

We have been told that an English student, who had occasion to make numerous memorandums and copies for his own use, and to maintain an exclusive but voluminous correspondence, adopted the vowel-dropping scheme to very great advantage; but, to judge of this, it will be requisite to consider the proportion of vowels and consonants in the English language.

Without stopping to explain the grounds on which I build my inferences, it will be sufficient to observe, that our consonants are double the number of our vowels, two consonants to one vowel being found to be the usual distribution. If we take away one third of our characters, we shall lessen the toil of penmanship by one third, and the speech or rehearsal of ten minutes, may then be recorded, not in twenty minutes, but in *fourteen*.

In truth, however, the deduction of one third of our letters is not a diminution of the quantity of writing by one third, our consonants being doubly or trebly more complicated than our vowels. By dropping vowels, therefore, we should not lessen the actual quantity of writing by more than a fifth; the proportions, therefore, even on the vowel-drop-

ping scheme, between reading and writing, would not much vary from that already stated.

The end of short-hand is to enable the writer to keep pace with the reader or speaker, or, at least, to approach more nearly to the speed of utterance than is done by the common methods. In what degree is this practicable?

Our written characters are far more complex than is necessary to the purposes of writing. Not one of our letters is the single modification of a line, yet all our alphabet might be exhibited by distinct and single modifications of the line. Few of our alphabetical characters represent elementary sounds, and none of them are elementary lines.

By adopting more simple characters, we might surely greatly expedite the business of writing. I will not mention the use of arbitrary forms, by which, indeed, we may carry abbreviation to an inconceivable extent, but I should adhere merely to the use of characters different from the English ones.

Most stenographical schemes denote the vowels merely by the relative position of a single dot, so that, to exhibit any vowel, a mere touch of the pen is necessary, such as at present is placed above the vowel *i*. The benefits to dispatch of this mode are manifest.

But how shall we measure the advantages of the simple, over the complex alphabet? Suppose the eye as easily peruses, and the hand as readily delineates the new letter as the old one (and this faculty will inevitably flow from practice): how many simple forms may be traced in the time requisite to trace the single English letter?

The simple forms are, in this respect, equal to each other; but the complex, having different degrees of complexity, are, of course, unequal to each other.

According to the foregoing experiments, it appears that we can rapidly articulate 650 syllables in two minutes and an half, which is four syllables in a second. A syllable ge-

nerally contains three characters. Can any stenographical hand trace *twelve* distinct characters in a second? I am afraid it is impossible.

It has likewise appeared that, by the current hand, one syllable, or three characters, will demand at least a *second*. To be equal to the speed of rapid utterance, stenography then must be *four times* as rapid as the current hand, a disproportion that cannot be conceived practicable without the abundant use of arbitrary signs.

If we will try the experiment, we shall ascertain this matter clearly, and shall find that a stenographical sign can be traced in the time that a syllable can be uttered; consequently, to keep pace with speech, either the three characters of which every syllable, on an average, consists, must be represented by *one new*, but simple character, or one only of the three must be retained, and the other two be inferred from the context. But one of every three is a vowel, and may prudently be dropped; the difference, therefore, from a third rises to an half, and, consequently, it appears that the *abvocal* stenography is only twice as rapid as the current hand, and that rapid speech is, in like manner, only twice as rapid as the *abvocal* stenography.

But though stenography appears thus unequal to rapid speech, it follows that it is equal to deliberate speaking, since, according to experiment, we find that the *hasty* utterer is twice as rapid as the *leisurely*.

The deliberate and hasty utterers, if their utterance be distinct, differ not in the time employed in enouncing a syllable, but merely in the intervals admitted between their syllables, words, and sentences. For stenography to keep pace with any just elocution, the pen must take advantage of the pauses of the tongue, and must, therefore, be unceasingly busy; but this unceasing activity is sufficient for the end.

The deliberate speaker is a being midway between the precipitate, on the one hand, and the dilatory on the other; but men oftener fall into the

last excess than into the former, and thus facilitate the task of the short-hand writer.

From all these observations, it appears that there is a mode of writing by which the common utterance of men can be equalled in speed, a truth which few persons are able to understand and believe. They are, indeed, far from gathering it from the practice or the precepts of short-hand writers, for there is seldom any one among them who attempts to keep pace with speaking, or who has practised sufficiently to confer on him the power, or who is not negligent and prone to rely upon his memory.

The great source of improvement in this art is the doctrine of arbitrary signs. It would be impossible to talk intelligibly on this subject, without exemplifying figures; but it is not necessary, since, in proportion to the use of arbitrary signs, must we reinstate the vowels and omitted characters; and refinements, the adoption of which is consistent with the just use of time, can do no more than make an active pen keep pace with a deliberate speaker.

L.

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### *For the Literary Magazine.*

#### ON THE USE OF ALMANACS.

THERE are few subjects in which a man may find more room for speculation than an almanac. I lately experienced the truth of this remark in a very forcible manner. Traveling some time ago in the wilds of New Jersey, I was overtaken by a storm, and obliged to seek shelter in the hovel of a fisherman. Looking about for something to employ my thoughts and beguile the hour, I spied, hanging by a piece of pack-thread from a nail, an almanac. I took it down, opened it, and turned over the pages in search of some information or amusement. The receipts for curing several diseases in men and horses, the moral pre-



cepts, and the quotations from Joe Miller scattered through it, were all read with much gravity and deliberation. At length I closed the book, and turning to the good woman who sat near me, and who was busy in darning a worsted stocking, Pray, said I, what use do you make of this thing?

Why, said she, with a good deal of hesitation, why—I don't know—it's an almanac.

True, said I, and what use do you find for an almanac?

Why, she answered with an air of increased perplexity, we look at it now and then to—to—to tell us the day of the month.

And what need have you to discover the day of the month?

Why—I don't know, I am sure.—One likes to know what day of the month it is sometimes. One must pay one's rent quarter day, and one doesn't know when it comes round without an *olminic*.

That said I, happens four times a year; so that once in three months you have occasion to look into this book: but there is much besides the days of the week and month. I see, continued I, taking up the book again and showing her the page, I see there are eight columns. One of these shows the day of the week; but here the letter *G* occurs on every Sunday; what does that mean?

Lord love your soul, cried she, how should I know?

The next space is filled with various particulars. First there are the names of saints. I suppose Nicholas, and Stephen, and Matthias, and Sylvester, and Benedict, and Swithen, are saints: what use do you make of them?

Why none, to be sure. What are these folks to me?

Here are likewise sundry hard words: such as Quinquagesima, Epiphany, Ascension: what do they mean?

La! suz, don't ask me.

And what are these uncouth characters, squares, and circles, and crosses; and the words, elongation,

southing, apogee, Sirius, and Arcturus, and Bull's eye, and Crab's foot? What did the almanac maker mean by giving us all that?

I can't tell, not I. I looks for nothing but the day of the month, and the times that the sun rises.

Here I thought proper to put an end to the dialogue. I could not help reflecting on the abundance of useless and unintelligible learning which an almanac contains. There is scarcely a family, however ignorant and indigent, without one copy hanging constantly in sight, and yet there is no production which fewer understand. The sense it contains is not only abstruse and remote from vulgar apprehension, but it is exhibited in the most scientific and concise form. Figures, initials, symbolical characters, and half-words every where abound.

A stranger who should meet, in every hovel, with a book, in which the relative positions of the planets, the diurnal progress of the sun in the zodiac, the lunar and solar eclipses, the wanderings of Sirius, Arcturus, and the Pleiades; of *Oculus*, *Tauri*, and *Spica-Virginis* were described in a way the most technical imaginable, would be apt to regard us as a very astronomical and learned nation. That the volume should be bought annually by every family, should be considered as an indispensable piece of household furniture, be so placed as to be always at hand, are facts that would make his inference extremely plausible. He would be not a little surprised to discover, that the book is bought for the sake of that which the memory and skill of children would suffice to find out, of that which costs the compiler nothing more than the survey of a former almanac, and a few strokes of his pen; and that these celebrated computations, these mystic symbols, this adjustment of certain days to certain holy names, are neither attended to nor understood, by one in ten thousand.

The eye roves over them, but the question, what do they mean? never



enters the mind. Being accustomed to retain figures and arrangements, we are dissatisfied if they do not appear as usual. My father hung his almanac on this nail, and I must do as my father did. A book of this kind being compiled and published anew every year, we take for granted that every new year demands a new almanac.

Habit will account for the continuance of a certain practice, but not for its origin. One would be naturally led to think, that when almanacs were first invented, mankind were more conversant with the stars than at present; that every cottager was interested in the planetary revolutions, in the places of the moon, in the solar progress, and in the birth-days of hermits and confessors.

This is partly true; but the source of curiosity respecting the motions of the heavenly bodies, was merely a belief that the incidents of human life were connected with these changes. That tract in the heavens which the sun apparently passes in a year, was called the zodiac, and was divided into twelve portions, which were called signs, and each of which received a fantastic name. A connection was imagined between the different members of the human body and the signs of the zodiac. Hence it was requisite to state minutely the zodiacal place of the sun, that men might be aware of the accidents to which they were most liable at certain seasons. The frontispiece commonly exhibited a figure, explaining the connection between constellations and limbs; and this frontispiece is still generally retained.

*Stellar* influence, though strong, was rightly supposed to be inferior to that of the planets. The relative position of the fixed stars is apparently unchangeable. Not so that of the planetary bodies: hence curiosity was busy in ascertaining the places of the latter, the prosperous and adverse state of man being supposed to be swayed by the oppositions and conjunctions of these orbs; and hence compilers of almanacs

bestowed particular attention on this circumstance.

There was a time when festivals and religious observances were connected with the anniversaries of the births of apostles and martyrs. It was therefore necessary to inform the people when these anniversaries occurred. A change of religion has taken away this necessity, at least among ourselves. Swithen, Margaret, Magdalen, Michael, and Denys are names which the reader overlooks. He never dreams of making a distinction between the days opposite to which these names appear and other days. To us, therefore, or at least to some of us, they are wholly useless and impertinent, but still they are annually printed, and their omission would create, in many persons, disapprobation and surprize.

It can scarcely fail to occur, that almanacs might be made the instruments of much general improvement. Custom has introduced them into every family. There is generally a space set apart for miscellaneous information, and in filling this space the compiler is at liberty to exercise his own judgment. The popularity of almanacs will thus afford him an opportunity of imparting wholesome truths to thousands, whose audience he could never hope to obtain in any other way.

In the form of tables, and in place of much of what is now introduced, facts in physical and moral science might be happily substituted. What is now occupied by Crispin and Gregory, by the perigee and apogee of the moon, by the risings and descents of Sirius and Arcturus, and by the vagaries of the planets, might surely be supplied with much more useful matter.

The happiness of mankind depends not so much upon the progress which the sciences, abstractedly considered, have made, as on the diffusion of the knowledge which already exists. A thousand truths are to be found in the recorded meditations of the wise, of which mankind have profited nothing, because, in general,

they remain ignorant of their existence. It seems as if a man, truly enlightened, should employ himself not in advancing the various branches of physical and moral knowledge to perfection by solitary experiments, and closet speculation, but in contriving and executing schemes for making simple, intelligible, and concise, the sciences in their present state of improvement; in making cheaper and more commodious, in clothing in more popular and attractive forms, and putting into the possession of a greater number, the knowledge already ascertained, and which is most conducive to their welfare. I cannot conceive an instrument more useful to this end, and an opportunity more favourable to the dissemination of truth and happiness than an almanac affords.

The advantages of this expedient have not been wholly overlooked. In Germany it has been more extensively employed than elsewhere. History, botany, mineralogy, agriculture, and domestic economy, have all been moulded into this form, and with admirable skill and efficacy. Two improvements have likewise been observable in our own country. One consists in noting the date of the principal events of our own history, and the other in assigning a column for exhibiting the degrees of heat, as observed on Fahrenheit's thermometer, on each day of the preceding year.

N.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

THE ANGLO-GERMAN DIALECT  
IN PHILADELPHIA.

*Scene—Street before a house.*

ENTER a shoe-maker, with boots in his hand. He taps softly at the door.

*Finch. (within)* Who's there?

C. Nebber mint; 'tis o'ny me, vid mishter Vinch's two pootes.

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*F. (opening the door)* Well, Conrad.

C. Ferry vell; tank you kaintley. So! 'tis right hot akin to-tay: ov'vre, not so hot as Soontay: unt no rain at all: Got's veel pe tone; unt dare's mishter Vinch's two pootes. I'fe heel'd 'toder, unt poot fone sole to dis.

*F. (taking the boots)* Very well, Conrad.

C. Hem—hem—'tish hart times, mine vife says; ferry hart times, she says, unt no ledder in de *hause*; unt de widdow Veester vont two shoose fur papey. She's kot a new papey, unt de oder fone iss teat; unt so she vont shoose to let her vaulk pye-unt-pye—hem!—hart times, inteet, mishter Vinch, my vife says.

*F.* True, Conrad; and so, to soften them a little, there's your money.

C. Tank you kaintley. So, koote pye! (*going*).

*F.* Good day, Conrad.

C. (*returning*) Mine kott! I forkits Katy Stephens—poor Katy!

*F.* What of her, Conrad?

C. Kott's veel pe tone; unt a voort more mit you, mishter Vinch. (*After a pause, assumes a grave tone.*) Your company iss, in a most pertee'kler manner, invited to de perrin of Ratmouse\* Stephen's pig shile, at four diss effternoon: unt two perrins koes in fone: unt fone iss a leetle fone, unt 'toder is much pigger; unt de parson koes pefore: so, koote pye! (*going*).

*F.* But you say there's two, Conrad: who is the other?

C. (*returning*) Mine Kott! I voorkits 'toder. 'Toder iss Sophy, up pye de cooper's *hause*, right ober Kingsint'n perrin kround. So! koote pye (*going*).

*F.* But, Conrad, what Sophy is this?

C. Mine Kott, mishter Vinch, no madder fur her oder name. Eff I vas tell you, you vould'nt know it. So, koote pye!

*F.* But what was her complaint, Conrad?

\* Erasmus.



C. De feeber unt agur, unt a leetle pain in de pones. Mine own shile died of *dat* last yee'ar. Put Sophy Schneider died of 'toder ting: put I don't know vot dat voss. De docter Sehneehause said it voss de grumble in de pelley, ov'vre some sish ting; fur old mooter Schutepeckke laid a spell upon Sophy; unt so she had de grumbles and died so: unt so, koote pye!

*Exeunt.*

A.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

REASONABLE LOVE.

*A dialogue.*

*(By Holcroft.)*

L. YOU surely are the happiest of mankind.

H. We are but ill judges of the happiness of others.

L. Why do you make that observation? Are you not married to the woman on whom your love was so fixed that, without her, frenzy, death, or some strange misery, must have been your lot?

H. I am married to the woman whom I do and shall for ever love, and am much happier, indeed, than I deserve to be.

L. Pshaw! that is talking idly. Your friends are reconciled; nay, they are as happy as you are yourself; they are rich; you have your establishment; are empowered honourably to maintain your wife and pursue your studies; and, if you can complain of unhappiness, well may I.

H. I did not: I meant only to say, I am not so happy as I might have been, and that, during a certain period, my error gave me strong affliction, which, however well it might be deserved, required every effort to support.

L. You talk now at your ease.

H. You are a witness that I say nothing but the truth.

L. I do not mean to dispute the sincerity or the goodness of your heart; but, having obtained the wo-

man you loved, you will find it difficult to convince me that your sufferings, however real, were not rather the effect of caprice than of sound understanding.

H. Do you then think that we owe nothing to the feelings of parents, who have devoted themselves to our happiness; who for a number of years have been unremittingly anxious for our welfare, and who, to the utmost of their knowledge and ability, have afforded us every source of instruction, and communicated every good within their power. If I do not understand this question, I understand nothing. Grant, however, that it were caprice; from the mistakes of caprice, we are the most liable to suffer. Why did I so readily take upon me to assert, lovely and admirable though I have found my Marianne to be, that she was the only woman on earth who could make me happy?

L. The only one whom you know, at least the only one perhaps whom you could hope to obtain: and you were fortunate enough to have her thrown as it were upon your mercy, and with the rare and exquisite enjoyment of being able to bestow happiness on her whom your heart adored. Oh, that I had that power!

H. The blessing was indeed ineffable, and one that, while I have life, will give me transport to recollect! But to confirm one truth does not destroy another. The desire to make her mine was no less virtuous than it was delightful to my heart. I may, and I sincerely believe I shall, be happier with her than I should have been with any other woman. Still, however, so far as I supposed the happiness and utility of my life must be lost were we to be separated, I was wrong, under the influence of violent passion, and unable to recollect or perceive the truth. Virtuous and highly amiable though Marianne be, she is not the only virtuous and highly amiable woman on earth.

L. But the only one, I say, whom perhaps you might be ever able to obtain.

*H.* That is uncertain ; but suppose it true, it only happened to be my peculiar good fortune to meet with her. And suppose the power to obtain her had not been mine ? Must I therefore have sunk under an imaginary loss ? How many beautiful objects are there in the world, how many treasures, which for themselves men might desire, but which they do not, because they are sensible their desires would be vain ! In romances, written perhaps with much imagination, but with little moral feeling, it is the essence of the story that a knight should fall in love with a princess. Men may read such romances till they think themselves permitted to fall in love with the first princess they may happen to see, or to hear described ; but, in such a case, their fellow-citizens must always consider them as mad. I was not far from the same unhappy condition, when I refused to refer the decision of my fate to my parents, and married without their knowledge. My friend, my heart bleeds, when I recollect my own dishonest, undutiful, and unworthy behaviour !

*L.* Your feelings were very different before your marriage.

*H.* They were strangely erroneous ! For a man to say there is but one woman who is worthy of me, there is but one with whom I can be happy, or there is not another on earth possessed of so many perfections, is to be guilty of an absurd supposition with respect to himself, and to commit flagrant injustice towards the female sex. That people, before they marry, should have a sincere and tender affection for each other ; that their love should be founded on their mutual admiration and excellence, and that should be a mutual preference of each other, is so just, that a virtuous marriage can scarcely be made without these requisites : but that any one should say, I must have the person whom I now admire, or I never can admire any woman on earth, and shall be guilty of some folly, or indiscretion, is surely nei-

ther conformable to virtue nor to sound understanding. Should we not call the man absurd who, beholding a beautiful mansion and park, were to say, that must be mine, or I shall be forever wretched. I will continually lament, I will continually accuse, I know not whom or what ; the world, the fates, my stars, or any other imaginary phantom ; or, if the owner do not give it me, I will cast myself into the water that ornaments his lawn, and punish him by putting an end to my own sufferings ! Would it not be as childish as if he were afterwards to add, my wretched ghost shall haunt him after I am dead, to punish him for his injustice towards me. Believe me, there is no essential difference between such a man and a desperate lover, and the insanity and folly of the latter, though more common, is not a whit less egregious, than of the former.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

FRENCH HISTORY.

THOUGH the records of every man's own country are those which he reads with most curiosity and delight, yet, considering the matter as citizens of the world, and divesting ourselves of local partialities, the history of no European nation can enter into competition, in point of interest and importance, with that of France. If we look at the other states of Europe, some of them have come into the vineyard, as it were, at the eleventh hour, and were barbarians but the other day ; some, again, have long ago run out their race of fame, and protracted from age to age an existence gradually decaying ; some, have never cultivated letters, and others never been great in arms ; some have been too miserable to produce legislators, and others too happy to breed heroes ; some have had meagre annalists to chronicle great exploits, and others great historians to record their petty transactions. But, as the duration



of the French empire for thirteen centuries far transcends the credible history of any other state; so the events by which that period is filled up are more various and important, have been related by more numerous and agreeable writers, and given scope to the talents and virtues of more distinguished men, than any other; while the subject presents a still more interesting spectacle to the British and American philosopher, as the source from which much of our polity and jurisprudence, much of our literature, and almost the whole of our system of manners has been derived.

No man can claim the title of a literary or philosophical antiquarian, who has not drank pretty largely from the copious stream of French history; a stream so copious, indeed, that the most diligent among the learned natives themselves have never been able, even in its smaller branches, to exhaust it.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

THE SPIRIT OF POLITICAL CON-  
VERSATION.

*Written in 1799.*

I WENT lately into the company of two persons, whom I will call Tom and Harry, talking very loudly upon politics. The debate, as usual, had proceeded from argument to sarcasm, and from railery to railing, and went on somewhat in this style:

*Tom.* Yes, your party aims at nothing but to overthrow the present government.

*Harry.* The very purpose of the villanous faction whom we fight against.

*T.* To throw us all into anarchy, and deliver us over to a Robespierian usurpation.

*H.* And who's to blame, if that falls out, merely from our struggles to prevent you from establishing a titled and hereditary despotism, well known to be the dearest wish of

your hearts, and the end of all your labours?

*T.* For that you wish to cement us, by alliances and treaties of fraternity, with the horrid and inexorable French.

*H.* The only expedient we have left to elude the effects of *your* unnatural and traitorous devotion to Britain.

*T.* But no wonder you act as traitors to your country, and as tools and sycophants of France. Power is the bribe held forth to you; and, to reign is worth your ambition, though as slaves and puppets of a foreign power.

*H.* Whereas you more wisely content yourself with money, and will barter the freedom of your country for a much safer consideration. Gold, British gold, is the spell that binds *you*.

*T.* A pack of knaves! cajoling the people by lies and stratagems! and labouring to build up your private fortunes, profligate and bankrupt as you are, upon the ruins of your country!

*H.* Better knaves than fools, say I: better pursue measures by which a few shall prosper, than, like you, to embrace those by which all shall perish in common. The knave promotes his own interest, at least, but the fool partakes himself of the ruin which he heaps upon others. Ye are blind guides, that fall first into the ditch into which you lead others. Sampsons, that, in order to destroy your enemies, pull the house upon your own heads.

*T.* Not content with warring against all political order, ye labour, with a diabolical zeal, to destroy the very *names* of morals and religion.

*H.* Whereas you are contented merely with abolishing the *things*. You leave us to console ourselves with the name, but take care that the substance shall be exchanged for bigotry, intolerance, and superstition.

*T.* cursers of God ye are, and tools of the devil!

*H.* Fit companions, if so, for the

enemies of man, and the victims of their own folly.

*T.* Ungrateful scoundrels, that, if I had my will, should all be shipped off to-morrow to your respective countries, where your crimes have already merited the gallows. What are you but the refuse of Europe, fugitives from states where your restless malignity strove in vain against wholesome order, and vipers who sting to death that bosom which gave you an asylum?

*H.* Fit companions, once more say I, for those impious monopolists who deny us the rights of human nature; because, forsooth, we were not *born* among you. More savage, you, than those savage tribes with whom every stranger is an enemy; for, with you, it seems, every *guest* is a *slave*!

*T.* How dare you abuse the government that fosters and protects you; by whose indulgent influence you are *what* you are; and which, if your ingratitude were treated as it merits, would reduce you in a moment to the beggary and dirt from whence you sprung!

*H.* I can't tell. I wonder at my own audacity as much as you. For a slave like me to pretend to question the will of one who has my life, liberty, and property in his own hand, and may kill or banish me just as caprice shall prompt him, is a rashness truly surprising. To supplicate his mercy, to pamper his arrogance, to confess that his power over me is no more than simple equity, that I have no shadow of pretence to aspire to an equality with him, to take an equal share in the government of myself and my fellows, is by far the safest way.

*T.* I understand your irony. And so you would insinuate that you have a right to enter my house, to claim a seat at my table, and share the possession of my wife and children, would you? *That* is one of the rights of human nature, is it? All exclusive property, all household and conjugal privileges, are arrant tyranny and usurpation, I warrant you. Maxims worthy of

those who are at once rebels to their country and their God.

*H.* Rebels let us be as long as we are ruled by tyrants.

*T.* Atheists!

*H.* Hypocrites!

*T.* Liars!

*H.* Dissemblers!

*T.* Vile, bloody-minded jacobins!

*H.* Proud, detestable aristocrats!

*T.* How dare you, rascal, use such terms?

*H.* Your humble imitator, sir, am I; I dare do all, as the poet *might have said*, that other rascals dare.

*T.* Do you call me rascal, sir?

*H.* No, sir; I *miscal* you gentleman, that's all.

*T.* Take that, sir (*kicking*).

*H.* And, to be out of your debt, take *that*, sir (*striking*).

Having little relish for this species of debate, and other persons being present to see *fair play*, I hastily withdrew. This being a pretty good specimen of the fashionable political conversation, I have amused myself by giving you this account of it, which, I hope, may likewise amuse some of your readers.

L.

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### For the Literary Magazine.

#### MODES OF HISTORICAL WRITING.

THERE are three methods which a historian may pursue with respect to those great subjects, of laws, manners, and the rest, which are so much more interesting, for the most part, than a mere narrative of transactions, and for the sake of which alone, in many periods, civil transactions are worth knowing.

He may interweave them with the body of his narration, either incidentally, as Herodotus, Froissart, and most writers of contemporary history have done, or by way of illustration, like the greater part of modern writers; or, secondly, he may station them in preliminary books, or reserve them for appendices, wherever they bear only a ge-



neral connection with the main body of the work, still pursuing the former method, where it is essential to discuss the causes, or elucidate the circumstance of particular events. Such is the plan of Robertson, in his *Charles V.* and of Hume, in his *History of England*. The arrangement of Gibbon is compounded of these two kinds, but partakes much more of the former. The third scheme of disposition is that of Dr. Henry; in which every distinct subject forms a distinct chapter, and the corresponding chapters in each successive volume may be read as a continued independent account of the matters to which they relate.

Of these, the first is beyond comparison the most pleasing to those who read history as a source of amusement. The fatiguing monotony of battles and sieges in war, cabals and negotiations in peace, so palls on the mind in almost every historical work, that intermingled passages, which illustrate laws, literature, or manners, show like Oases in the great desert, and afford resting places to the weary reader, from which he may launch out again refreshed into the tedious wilderness. These passages are in many of the best authors more precious, by being rare. Man, so studious to record his crimes and his miseries, casts a careless eye on the laws which protect, the arts which adorn, and the commerce which enriches him. It was not indeed till lately, that the great and leading uses of historical knowledge seem to have been well understood, or that philosophy, with Montesquieu as her high priest, taught us to consider the progress of the species as of more importance than the pedigree of kings, and commissioned those painful, though sometimes refractory drudges, the antiquarians, to labour as her pioneers in the collection of facts, which her more favoured sons must afterwards combine and generalize. Hence, in modern histories, these interesting branches bear a much greater proportion to the main stock than formerly; and for that rea-

son cannot so easily be incorporated with it, without distracting us by frequent transitions, losing that time which is required to recal our ideas, and bring our minds to the proper focus, and rendering it difficult either to refer to particular passages, or to study collectively any particular subject.

To this confused, immethodical disposition, the third plan is directly opposite. It seems indeed at first to be the very reverse of confusion: every genus has its chapter, and every species its section. Yet this extreme accuracy of arrangement may sometimes defeat itself. Many facts are to be found, of which we cannot well say whether they should be referred to the civil or ecclesiastical departments, to the history of science or of art. Thus, the disputes between Henry II and Becket are related by Dr. Henry under the head of religion, though no events could be of a more general nature. But, what is more material, there is great danger that too rigorous an adherence to the systematic division may produce a jejune spiritless performance, a mere anatomy of history, more resembling the dry precision of an index or chronological table, than a skilful and harmonious combination of the several parts of the work. Such is, perhaps, in some degree, the case with Dr. Henry's production.

A field is likewise thus entered, larger than any one can reasonably hope to explore; and the writer is naturally induced, by the very disposition which he adopts, to dwell with unnecessary minuteness on many subjects, which, as they reflect little light on civil history, and furnish little towards philosophical views of the species, ought to be seldom and slightly noticed. Such are long details of theological schisms and heresies, which properly fall under another province, and impose a needless obligation on the writer, the fulfilment of which will perhaps excite the gratitude of few of his readers. Such too is the history of language, a subject extremely inter-

esting in itself, but, for the same reasons, rather injudiciously mingled with very different matter.

The second of the three methods above mentioned is, therefore, best suited to the greater part of histories. In the standard works of Hume and Robertson, while the chain of events is never broken by long dissertations, the narrative is agreeably varied and perspicuously illustrated by occasional digressions, and general views of the state of society are introduced in proper places, without a tedious accuracy, or an attempt to exhaust materials of an indefinite extent.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

ORIGIN OF PLANTS.

THE first vegetation of a new soil, remote from continents and the intercourse of man, is a botanical problem of difficult solution. Objections may be made, with much plausibility, to the received notions of winds, water, and birds conveying an adequate and sufficiently varied supply of seeds in a state fit for germination. The hypothesis of *temporary* and *partial* acts of creation, adapted to *existing circumstances*, is unphilosophical, and by no means countenanced by facts. What have these supplementary acts effected for the island of Ascension, a volcanic ejection of comparatively recent date? Its immense distance from land renders its acquisition of seeds difficult and precarious. There are but two ways of supplying it with seeds, one by the water of the ocean, the other by birds. By one or other of these ways, it has got possession of three species of plants, and only three, a singularity no where else known.

Many existing islands are, probably, only portions of continents, and received their quotas of vegetable germs in periods of high antiquity.

Others, which owe their present appearance to the agency of subterraneous fires, may have previously existed at no great depth under the surface of the sea, and in such a state as to preserve the rudiments of future plants from the contact of air or other causes of corruption. Amid the physical convulsions which may have agitated various tracts of the earth's surface, some of the many sources of vegetable reproduction may have been kept alive, while the fortuitous movements of wind, water, and birds may have also contributed their aid. In reasoning, however, on such a subject, we may truly say, that *we are of yesterday*, and that *we know nothing*. History, eager to keep pace with the busy but fleeting events which harass the successive generations of rude and of civilized society, presumes to disdain the silent yet majestic march of nature, who steadily observes her course, heedless of the clamours of contending factions, and of the miseries which man inflicts on his brother. And thus, since the days of Theophrastus till those of Linnæus, the flower, which has not ceased, with the return of spring, to disclose its beauty, or dispense its fragrance, and the more homely herb, which has continued to minister to the shelter or sustenance of animated beings, have, as subjects of inquiry, been condemned to peculiar neglect.

The affinities and migrations of the vegetable families, in the early and subsequent ages of the world, it is now impossible, from want of proper documents, to ascertain. Either they never found a place in the registers of man, or, if they did, their history has for ever perished. What given tract of land can, at this day, exhibit the uninterrupted genealogy of its vegetable tribes? Impressions of races, long since extinct in the colder latitudes, are still visible in various strata of schistus, coal, and iron stone. Their prototypes have, perhaps, perished, or, perhaps, they exist in Africa or Indostan.



*For the Literary Magazine.*

ON AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS.

"THE Americans," said a splenetic friend of mine, who has travelled a good deal in America, "are a nation of readers. Taking one with another, a far greater number of the people devote some of their time to reading, than of any other people in the world. In Great Britain, France, and Germany, those who *do*, or who *can* read, bear a very small proportion to the rest. They are scarcely one to twenty; but, in America, almost every man is a student.

"They read not casually, or now and then, but regularly and daily. They betake themselves to reading as punctually as to dine or to labour. Surely, then, they must be a very learned nation. All their minds must be turned to a generous and enlightened key. Society must wear, among them, a face totally different from that of any other nation, and is not this so?

"Why, one must pause a little, and inquire what is it they read? Books of history, or poetry, or science, or morals? Much depends upon their kind of reading. Are they meagre ballads, or fabulous legends? If they be, we can only expect them to be confirmed in every silly prejudice or vile superstition. A sort of volume is left, daily at every man's door. What are its usual contents? To judge of its efficacy, it is necessary to know the tenor of it.

"If we examine them, we shall find them to be nothing more than *newspapers*; pages in which the two factions, who divide the nation, perpetually fight their battles; and, in every species of invective and stratagem, endeavour to get the better of their adversaries. In this school, you may judge what progress the American student is likely to make in the art of governing his passions, enriching his fancy, or enlarging his understanding."

It is thus that the traveller affected to sneer at us poor Americans, for our attachment to the noble pursuits of history and politics. "I would fain know, Mr. Caviller," returned I, "how the time of a citizen can be better employed than in watching the conduct of his governors, in detecting their mistakes, and, if need be, censuring or displacing them. For what end has the power of chusing our governors and legislators been vested in us, if we do not exercise it with judgment and vigilance; if we do not inquire into their claims to our favours, and regulate our choice by the tendency of those measures which we know they will adopt?

"But mere political discussions do not wholly engross these publications. Are they not continually supplied with intelligence from all parts of the world? And do they not inform us of the fate of battles, the schemes of statesmen, and the change of rulers, in every part of the world? And what objects are more sublime, more interesting to the rational inquirer, than the successive scenes of this great drama?

"There is no soul among us so sordid and groveling that has not an active curiosity in relation to these great events. He will always lay down his groat for the sake of knowing what they are about in Germany, Egypt, or Bengal. The scene cannot be so remote but we have an eye to it; and sultan Tip-poo, and field-marshal Suwarroff, are people with whom every American, the meanest and most laborious among us, is as intimately acquainted as with his next door neighbour."

Not convinced by these reasonings, my companion continued to insinuate, that to know the incidents of a German and Italian campaign, cannot very materially benefit a native of America, who has his bread to get by his industry, and his family to cherish by domestic virtues. He prated much about the necessity of limiting our attention, in the first

place; to our own family affairs; and, if those will allow any of our time to be employed in general pursuits, he urged that it ought to be devoted to the improvement of the heart and the understanding, by writings that explain to us our personal duties, and illustrate them by familiar, pertinent, and amusing examples; by books that advance us in the knowledge of the properties and processes of nature; that make us, or *tend* to make us, better fathers, husbands, and neighbours, better artists or husbandmen.

"Now, no instruction of this kind," he continued, "can be gained from the bickerings of faction, vulgarly politics, and from the shreds and fragments, trifling, contradictory, and vague, to be found in newspapers, and gravely dignified with the name of history. Is any professional skill, any maxim of domestic economy or of social conduct, any improvement in the condition of ourselves or our neighbours, to be drawn from these fountains? How is any man the better in his taste, his temper, or his fortune; how is any man the wiser, in any art or science worth knowing, by hearing that the king of Sweden is playing the fool heroically, and that policy has made the king of Prussia a knave; that Bonaparte has made himself brother to emperors, and kings of his brothers?"

"A newspaper, considered as one among a merchant's documents, is a very good thing; as conveying, in due season, information of what is to be bought and sold; of ships arrived, or departing, or taken, or shipwrecked—may not be conveniently dispensed with by the owners of ships, and the venders and buyers of commodities; but why so many of its pages should be stuffed with declamation against individuals, and with scraps of news respecting the operations of armies and ambassadors in another hemisphere, is not easily conceived.

"If these events are worth knowing, it is ridiculously absurd to seek the knowledge in this way. Stay

till a little time has rendered the issue of transactions certain, and stay till you have the whole of a particular event, in all its parts and incidents, before you, instead of indulging a childish impatience, and eagerly swallowing every mutilated lying rumour. A little time will not only afford you an authentic account of an event, but will save you all that expence of time which is wasted in procuring and reading premature, unauthentic, and, what is worse, unintelligible statements.

"If the knowledge of great events, passing in the other hemisphere, be of any value, newspapers, as at present conducted, are liable to insurmountable objections; inasmuch as, instead of faithfully and accurately affording this knowledge, they only tend to confuse, bewilder, and mislead. In all they give us, there is such confusion or contradiction of dates; such opposite accounts of the same events; such idle and incessant repetitions, that no mortal can extricate himself from out the chaos. After a week or a month's study, a man may safely conclude that a certain battle has been fought, or a certain treaty ratified; but as to the causes and circumstances that belong to them, the memory is burthened with a discordant and obscure mass. Of these he knows nothing, till some impartial and enlightened observer has collected, arranged, sifted, and weighed the accompanying testimony, and, profiting by lights for which it was requisite patiently to wait, or deeply to search, he delivers, in a narrative of half a page, what had filled, in its impure and chaotic state, not less, perhaps than a hundred columns of a hundred gazettes.

"But even admitting that there is some use in perusing these desultory and impertinent details of news, what have I, a plain farmer perhaps, or a man of some studious vocation, physician, lawyer, or divine, or a country shopkeeper or city artisan; what has such a one as I to do with this long history of shipping, this catalogue of sloops and brigs to be sold or freighted, these lists of



goods, wet and dry, to be found at such a corner, or in such an alley? These things occupy three out of the four huge and overflowing pages which I daily receive, and are absolutely of no use but as blank paper.

"A daily gazette contains, when collected, at a year's end, no less than twelve hundred and fifty-two pages, and these are equivalent to, at least, twelve thousand pages of a good sized octavo, and these would make, at least, *twenty-four* bulky octavo volumes. When we reflect upon the infinite variety and quantity of valuable matter which might be squeezed into twenty octavos, how must we lament when we come to scan their actual contents! Three-fourths of them are nothing to the world at large. They are of use, of temporary use, only to the traders, to one of the numerous callings into which the people are distributed. To all the rest they are just as foreign as if some eminent taylor should send his ledgers and receipt-books, for the last ten years, to the press, and I should be served, every morning, with half a volume full of the precious contents. What is the cargo of the ship *Sailfast* to me? What is the bale of dry goods, or a thousand bags of *prime green coffee*, to be sold *to-morrow* by an auctioneer, to me, who live a hundred miles off, or whose pursuits have nothing in them of a mercantile cast? Yet such is the vanity of fashion, and the caprice of the passions, that two thousand copies of such stuff shall be daily printed, and dispersed within a sphere of a hundred miles. Though never read by any but traders, it is brought and laid upon the table, because it is connected with the news and politics of the day; a connection that is perfectly incongruous, and irrational, and unnecessary.

"Among other causes for regret, which the contemplation of the world and its ways furnishes to a friend of mankind, is the absurd or pernicious application of an instrument capable of the most illustrious and permanent use. It is impossible to praise too highly the invention of

the *press*. Of all the forms of publication, that of a large sheet, filled with small type, and printed and dispersed daily, is the most to be admired. By this means, a man shall have, for eight dollars, in daily and convenient portions, put into his hand, without effort or forethought of his own, a quantity equal to twenty-four volumes in octavo.

"How powerful in the cause of true virtue and beneficial knowledge might this instrument be made! Put into the hands of philanthropy and genius, what wonders would be wrought by it! How might the knowledge diffused through costly, or inaccessible, or widely scattered volumes, be compressed, with new forms, arrangements, and illustrations, into this easy and current vehicle! How might the truths of science, the maxims of morals and economy, be modelled and distributed anew, be familiarized, and rendered, at the same time, captivating and intelligible, in a daily paper!

"Such are its possible uses; but it is mournful to reflect on the actual application of it. Three-fourths of its contents are wholly useless and foreign to nine-tenths of its readers. By the remaining fourth, the illusions and misrepresentations of faction are conveyed to us. Our understandings are misled by sophistry, and our passions are irritated and depraved by invective and by slander, or a silly curiosity is tantalized (not gratified) by the shreds and patches, void of connection, authenticity, and order of events, in which we have no concern, and attention to which usurps the place of every salutary study.

"Considering the popular newspaper as the test of civilization or wisdom in its readers, how very low must sink our opinion of Americans! Their connection with us, as natives of a common country, may rescue them from our contempt, and prompt us to extenuate the censure, by extending it from *Americans* to *men*; and, by studied comparisons, to show, that if Americans are no *better*, in this respect, than other nations, yet

it may, at least, be said that they are not *worse*."

Such was my good friend's invective against newspapers. It is easy to see that there was much error and extravagance in it; and that the fault, thus imputed to the people at large, can only fall on the head of the editors or publishers of newspapers. As to the contempt cast upon the mercantile portion of a gazette, it is plainly absurd, since intelligence of what is to be bought and sold, is useful to every one who buys and sells; and that is the case with every member of society.— Every man is not interested in every article, but there are some to whom every article is of use; and, in proposing the gratification or advantage of all, each one must be contented with a little.

In a performance of this kind, nothing is more unreasonable than for any one man, or one class, to expect that his benefit or pleasure shall be solely consulted. It is sufficient that there is something, among a multitude of things, which is of use to him, and the scantiness of each portion is made up by the number of those who receive it.

There is no valid reason why mercantile intelligence and general speculations should not be connected in the same paper. Every merchant and townsman is a citizen and a man, though every citizen is not a merchant or inhabitant of a town; and, while one is contented to receive (for he need not read) the salesman's catalogue for the sake of the literature or politics connected with it, the trader is prompted to extend his view beyond his professional concerns by the vicinity of other topics.

As to the politics of newspapers, the curiosity that is attentive to the character and conduct of our rulers, so far from being merely harmless, or only moderately useful, seems to be the grand and indispensable duty of every citizen. Since it is our privilege to chuse, it is our duty to chuse wisely; and, for that end, to

be vigilant in scanning the practices and principles of public men, to employ all practicable means of forming a true decision ourselves, and to recommend that true decision to our neighbours.

In all transactions with our fellow men, we must make account for the influence of passions and prejudices, and draw from their folly, their precipitation, and their selfishness, new motives for industry in searching truth for ourselves, and for perseverance and ardour in combating the passions and rectifying the ignorance of others.

If newspapers be, in general, the vehicles of falsehood, and men are betrayed, by faithless guides, in the pursuit of their true interest, and the selection of their true friends, it is criminal to stand idly aloof, or to content ourselves with reviling either the deceiver or the dupe. No; it is our business to exert ourselves to show them their preferable path; and, by shunning all absurd reproaches, all groundless calumnies, all personal altercations, which obscure the penetration in proportion as they inflame the passions of men, we may confer the most signal and illustrious benefits upon our countrymen.

Political intelligence, as conveyed to us through newspapers, is liable to many objections; but some of these objections arise from the nature of the thing, and are inseparable from human testimony; but much, it is evident, must upon the industry, and candour, and judgment of the publisher. The proofs of momentous events must ever be wanting in absolute consistency and certainty; and, in general, mere rumour and conjecture are just as likely to be wrong as right: but this is not applicable to every kind of document or intimation, and there is constantly occurring proofs of a proper and legitimate kind. The selection of these evidences, and the conveyance of them to the inquisitive or studious part of mankind, are surely laudable and beneficial undertakings, and af-



ford large scope for the exercise of diligence, penetration, and impartiality.

The constitution of a newspaper will always allow some columns to be assigned to general information or speculative disquisition. It is, in this respect, chiefly, that it is an important and inestimable instrument for influencing human society, and that a wise superintendant will have occasion for all his wisdom.

Three or four columns of economical or moral discussion, daily supplied, will be quite as much as the occupations of mankind will allow them to attend to. More would be tedious and redundant; and the narrower be the compass of our lucubrations, the more incumbent on us will be the careful selection, and the judicious management of our topics. Instead of lamenting that three-fourths are otherwise engrossed, the friend of mankind should rejoice that literature and morals occupy so large a portion of a production that so widely circulates; and, instead of censuring the connection that is thus formed between literature, and lucre, and politics, he should give honour to his countrymen for permitting the alliance, and ardently approve of such effectual means for introducing the teacher of virtue, and the preceptor in useful arts, to the counters, desks, and tea-tables of every rank and profession in society.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

THE WISDOM OF SPIDERS.

CAN any thing more strongly evince the intellectual weakness of the animal called man, than the signs of fear, the starts, the shudderings, which he sometimes manifests at the appearance of a spider? How many of us shrink at the mere imagination or description of a spider crawling on our bare shoulder or cheek! And yet, what is a spi-

der? So light that its weight is not felt; so frail that we often crush it into atoms without knowing what we have done. Wholly inoffensive: a mere *spectrum*: as to its mischief-making and resisting power, it is nothing. A spider is, to a man, in *volume* and force, less than a mole to the elephant, than the elephant to Teneriffe.

As we fear, so likewise we hate it. We fly from it; we turn away our eyes; or gratify our spite by remorselessly mangling and exterminating it. To our fear, we add abhorrence; to our abhorrence, contempt; to our contempt, cruelty. Caligula killing flies, and Carrier killing Poltevans, give but too strong evidence of partaking in a common nature. The principle in each is—what? Surely not justice or compassion.

As we fear a spider, though harmless, we despise or neglect it, though wonderful in structure, and far surpassing us in sagacity. Man, with all his art, can never build his house with so much wisdom as the *ant*, prepare his food with so much skill as the *bee*, or provide himself with clothing, and with the means of passing through fluids specifically lighter than himself, with so much expedition and success, as the *spider*.

I have seen spiders descend from the ceiling of a hall thirty feet high, to the floor, occasionally stop or linger by the way, and finally return, by means of a thread, safer to him than a bridge of marble to a man, drawn instantaneously, without seeming labour or pain, from his own substance. Materials for a bridge must be collected, by hundreds of concurring men, from the substances around and without us; but the spider has no need to go beyond himself; his materials are within him and perpetually renewed; his purpose is effected by new modifying, as it were, by the exertion merely of his will, *his own substance*. He prolongs himself, he stretches himself forward, so to speak, and to an extent more than *eighteen hundred fold* greater than his own customa-

ry length; that is, he traverses a space as great, relatively to his bulk, as *two miles* would be to a human being.

How shall a man pass through the air from the summit of Etna to the surface of the sea? In a balloon. How must he descend, safely, eighteen hundred fathoms into the caves of the ocean? In a diving bell. But what is a balloon or diving bell to the conveyance of the spider through a space *relatively* equal?

The reasoning or instinctive foresight of the spider is not less admirable. His house and domain in which he dwells, and over which he expatiates, are, in like manner, parts of himself, wrought into length and breadth, without pain, and with only temporary diminution of his substance. Not only the length, but the thickness and consequent strength of his cords, are accurately adjusted to present circumstances and to future. This fabric must be strong in proportion to the quantity of moisture and of motion in the air about him; but this quantity is variable, and his fabric is designed to last during periods when many successive changes may, in this respect, take place.

Hence the spider, in preparing his web, always ascertains the kind of weather that will prevail for the ten or twelve ensuing days. If he foresees, and his foresight is unerring, much wind or wet, he weaves his woof thicker and shorter accordingly. If he prognosticates a continuance of clear and still skies, he lengthens and *attenuates* without scruple. This knowledge of the future is obtained by some faculty or sense peculiar to himself. Man, on the contrary, must obtain this know-

ledge by means arduous, complicated, and uncertain. His only reliance, hitherto, has been experience, which is vague, and the barometer, which only predicts the weather for the next twenty-four hours. A very small part of mankind employs the barometer; and that is not the class to whom such knowledge is of most use. The shepherd and the husbandman know as little of barometrical prognostics, as they do of the spider's foresight in this particular.

But though we cannot hope to vie with the wisdom of the spider, it is certainly practicable and wise to profit by the information which he gives. By attending to his measures, by marking the size of his threads, we shall, at least, know *his* opinion of the weather; and thus be guided, in many instances, where a guide is of great importance to our happiness.

W.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

DR. JOHNSON.

DR. JOHNSON, to whom an engraver of some eminence brought a high-finished portrait of lord George Sackville (soon after his lordship's return from Germany), and stated, with a sigh, that he wished for some advice concerning it, for, though he had taken infinite pains with the engraving, he could not sell a print. "Sir (replied Johnson), it appears to me to be a very good portrait, but it is *drest too fine* for a soldier: change the solitaire for a halter, and you will sell as many as you can get rolled from the printing-press."



*For the Literary Magazine.*

TABLE OF THE NEW FRENCH MEASURES, WITH THEIR PROPORTIONAL RELATIONS.

NAMES OF THE MEASURES.							
Relation of all the measures to their principal measure.	Expressed in Cyphers.	First part of the name, which indicates the relation to the principal name	Measures of Length.	Measures of Capacity.	Measures of Weight.	Measures of superficies of Land.	Measures of Wood for Fuel.
Ten thousand	10000.	Myria					
A thousand	1000.	Kilo					
A hundred	100.	Hecto					
Ten	10.	Deca					
One	1.		Metre.	Litre.	Gramme.	Are.	Stere.
A tenth (dixième)	0.1	Deci					
A hundredth (centième)	0.01	Centi					
A thousandth (millième)	0.001	Milli					
Relation of the principal measures to one another.			$\frac{1}{100000000}$ of a quarter of the Meridian.	A cubical decimetre.	Weight of a cubical centimetre of water.	100 Square metres.	A Cubical metre.
Relation of the principal measures to the ancient ditto.			$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Ft. Inch. Line.} \\ 3 \quad 0 \quad 11\frac{1}{2} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \text{ pt. } \frac{1}{20}, \text{ or } \frac{1}{3} \\ \text{of a bushel.} \end{array} \right.$	18 grains $\frac{16}{100}$ .	$\frac{100}{3}$ of a French acre, or 3 perches.	19 cubical feet.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

## ON TRANSLATION.

WE are never to expect much from a new translation of any poet of eminence. Those who have been used to admire the original, reject a literal rendering of the words as tame and tasteless, and a more free manner as an unwarrantable change of what was good before. To translate literally and beautifully at the same time; to be at once *true to the sense and fame* of the author, is, unless by a rare felicity here and there in a single line, or little more, beyond the compass of man's wit to accomplish.

The first and most notorious obstacles are the rules of metre: the words which constitute a Latin hexameter will not, when correctly translated, fall into the ranks of a French or English verse; and the use of synonyms, which, to a reader who has studied language, either as a philosopher or a man of taste, are always very few, is a limited and precarious resource.

This difficulty is prodigiously increased by the necessity of finding rhymes. If the sense of an original writer is so much modified, as all who have made trial must know that it is, by the imperious obligation of ending each couplet with a chime of sounds, what must be the case with a translator, and by what possibility can he adhere to the meaning of his text, without sacrificing the essentials of metre?

But there are other impediments in the way of literal rendering which cannot be removed, though they are sometimes overlooked at the expense of the goodness, and, consequently, the popularity of the translation. Every language has its own idiom, its own class of words appropriate to poetry, its own artifices of phrase and rhymical structure, in which great part of what is strictly called *style*, both in prose and poetry, consists. All this must be lost in a foreign tongue, and, indeed,

some part of it is often unperceived by foreigners in the original.

What we lose, however, of these lighter and indescribable touches of grace, when we read a language with which we are not thoroughly familiar, is made up to us, in many cases, by the superior effect which the sense is apt to produce on us, where there is something new in the words by which it is conveyed. Every man must have observed how much trite and common-place sentiments appear to gain, when they are found in a Greek or Latin writer, and how totally the illusion is dissipated when we turn them into literal English.

From the exquisite beauty of metrical structure among the ancients, and the gratification which it consequently gave to the ear, as well as from the general superiority of their languages, much greater simplicity, in point of expression, was preserved, by many at least of their great poets, than would be consistent with the spirit and tone of poetry in our modern unmusical tongues. The Italian, indeed, from the softness of the language, the delicacy of its metrical rules, and the copiousness of its poetical dialect, comes near to the ancient class; and, accordingly, there is a general simplicity of style, which will not bear literal translation into English or French.

The consequence of all this is, that a man of taste and fancy, who sits down to present his countrymen with the portrait of an illustrious bard of antiquity, will be perpetually dissatisfied with the bald and spiritless version which must result from a close adherence to his text. He will therefore be led to lay the blame on himself, not on his system; to touch and retouch; to heighten the colouring; to sprinkle here an epithet, and there a metaphor; to make amends for the beauties which, like trees long used to their soil, will not bear transplanting, by new turns and images of his own; till, by degrees, perhaps, like stockings under



the care of a good housewife, very little trace is left of the original prototype. By this process, he may have some chance of producing a good poem, though probably not so good as if he had followed the bent of his own genius; but he will, beyond a doubt, call down on him the indignation of those who discover how palpably he has deserted the model which he proposed to copy. This indignation is sometimes rather unjust, since it imputes as a fault that which was prescribed by necessity: it is, however, well founded, where the copy differs from the original, as is often the case, not only in slighter shades of colour, but in the features and complexion of the whole. These two extremes, of meagre copying, and of imitation so free as to leave no likeness, are to be found in our two translations of Homer. After Pope had been censured, for near a century, for leading his unlearned readers to the most mistaken estimate of the first of poets, there appeared, by a writer, of reputation hardly inferior to Pope's, a very different performance; the best use of which has been, to serve as a beacon and a sea-mark, by which all succeeding poets may be warned to turn their helm from the perils of literal translation.

The just medium seems to be, that every thing should be allowed to the translator, which, it may be fairly presumed, would have been the choice of the author had he lived in our own time. The business of the translator is to enter so fully, by long study and attention, into the mind of his original, that he may, as it were, look on every thing with the same eyes, and feel with the same soul. Whatever is thoroughly in the *manner* of Virgil may, when necessary, be introduced by him who renders Virgil into his own tongue; for the object of a poet is to please, and the object of Virgil was to please chiefly by the beauties and graces of diction: no one, therefore, can doubt that he would have rather, had he written in English, introdu-

ced a new image or epithet, than left a line weak and unpoetical. But what is not in the manner of an author, even though good, should never be admitted; for a translation seems primarily meant for the unlearned, and can only mislead them, if it represents a poet as thinking and feeling as he would not have felt or thought. We extend this license of deviation no farther than necessity requires, by which we intend a poetical, not merely a metrical necessity.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

CAPTAIN LEWIS'S EXPEDITION.

THE following particulars of the expedition of captain Lewis, from the mouth of the Missouri, which empties into the Mississippi at St. Louis, to the Pacific ocean, transmitted to general Clarke, of Kentucky, by his brother, who accompanied the expedition, will be found interesting.

*St. Louis, 23d Sept. 1806.*

DEAR BROTHER,

We arrived at this place at 12 o'clock to-day, from the Pacific ocean, where we remained during the last winter, near the entrance of the Columbia river. This station we left on the 27th of March last, and should have reached St. Louis early in August, had we not been detained by the snow, which barred our passage across the Rocky Mountains until the 24th of June. In returning through those mountains, we divided ourselves into several parties, digressing from the route by which we went out, in order the more effectually to explore the country, and discover the most practicable route which does exist across the continent by the way of the Missouri and Columbia rivers: in this we were completely successful, and have therefore no hesitation in declaring, that, such as nature has

permitted, we have discovered the best route which does exist across the continent of North America in that direction. Such is that by way of the Missouri to the foot of the rapids, below the great falls of that river, a distance of 2575 miles, thence by land, passing by the Rocky Mountains to a navigable part of the Kooskooske 340; and with the Kooskooske 73 miles, Lewis's river 154 miles, and the Columbia 413 miles to the Pacific ocean, making the total distance, from the confluence of the Missouri and Mississippi to the discharge of the Columbia into the Pacific ocean, 3555 miles. The navigation of the Missouri may be deemed good; its difficulties arise from its falling banks, timber imbedded in the mud of its channel, its sand-bars, and steady rapidity of its current, all which may be overcome with a great degree of certainty, by using the necessary precautions. The passage by land of 340 miles, from the falls of the Missouri to the Kooskooske, is the most formidable part of the track proposed across the continent. Of this distance, 200 miles is along a good road, and 140 miles over tremendous mountains, which for 60 miles are covered with eternal snows. A passage over these mountains is, however, practicable from the latter part of June to the last of September; and the cheap rate at which horses are to be obtained from the Indians of the Rocky Mountains, and west of them, reduces the expences of transportation over this portage to a mere trifle. The navigation of the Kooskooske, Lewis's river, and the Columbia, is safe and good, from the first of April to the middle of August, by making three portages on the latter river; the first of which, in descending, is 1200 paces at the falls of Columbia, 261 miles up that river, the second of two miles, at the long narrows, six miles below the falls, and a third, also of two miles, at the great rapids, 65 miles still lower down. The tide flows up the Columbia 183 miles, and within seven miles of the great rapids. Large sloops

may with safety ascend as high as the tide water, and vessels of 300 tons burthen reach the entrance of the Multnomah river, a large southern branch of the Columbia, which takes its rise on the confines of New Mexico, with the Callorado and Apostle's rivers, discharging itself into the Columbia, 125 miles from its entrance into the Pacific ocean. I consider this track across the continent of immense advantage to the fur trade, as all the furs collected in nine-tenths of the most valuable fur country in America may be conveyed to the mouth of the Columbia, and shipped from thence to the East Indies, by the first of August in each year; and will of course reach Canton earlier than the furs which are annually exported from Montreal arrive in Great Britain.

In our outward bound voyage we ascended to the foot of the rapids below the great falls of the Missouri, where we arrived on the 14th of June, 1805. Not having met with any of the natives of the Rocky Mountains, we were of course ignorant of the passes by land, which existed through those mountains to the Columbia river. And had we even known the route, we were destitute of horses, which would have been indispensably necessary to enable us to transport the requisite quantity of ammunition and other stores to ensure the remaining part of our voyage down the Columbia; we therefore determined to navigate the Missouri as far as it was practicable, or unless we met with some of the natives, from whom we could obtain horses and information of the country. Accordingly, we undertook a most laborious portage at the falls of the Missouri, of eighteen miles, which we effected with our canoes and baggage by the 3d of July. From hence, ascending the Missouri, we penetrated the Rocky Mountains at the distance of 71 miles above the upper part of the portage, and penetrated as far as the three forks of that river, a distance of 180 miles farther. Here the Missouri divides



into three nearly equal branches at the same point. The two largest branches are so nearly of the same dignity, that we did not conceive that either of them could with propriety retain the name of the Missouri; and therefore called these streams Jefferson's, Madison's, and Gallatin's rivers. The confluence of those rivers is 2858 miles from the mouth of the Missouri, by the meanders of that river. We arrived at the three forks of the Missouri on the 27th of July. Not having yet been so fortunate as to meet with the natives, although I had previously made several exertions for that purpose, we were compelled still to continue our route by water.

The most northerly of the three forks, that to which we had given the name of Jefferson's river, was deemed the most proper for our purpose, and we accordingly ascended it 248 miles, to the upper forks, and its extreme navigable point; making the total distance to which we had navigated the waters of the Missouri 3096 miles, of which 429 lay within the Rocky Mountains. On the morning of the 17th of August, 1805, I arrived at the forks of Jefferson's river, where I met captain Lewis, who had previously penetrated, with a party of three men, to the waters of the Columbia, discovered a band of the Shoshone nation, and had found means to induce thirty-five of their chiefs and warriors to accompany him to that place. From these people we learned that the river on which they resided was not navigable, and that a passage through the mountains in that direction was impracticable. Being unwilling to confide in this unfavourable account of the natives, it was concerted between captain Lewis and myself, that one of us should go forward immediately with a small party, and explore the river; while the other in the interim should lay up the canoes at that place, and engage the natives with their horses to assist in transporting our stores and baggage to their camp. Accordingly I set out the next day, passed

the dividing mountains between the waters of the Missouri and Columbia, and descended the river which I since call the East Fork of Lewis's river, about seventy miles. Finding that the Indians's account of the country in the direction of this river was correct, I returned and joined captain Lewis on the 29th of August, at the Shoshone camp, excessively fatigued, as you may suppose; having passed mountains almost inaccessible, and compelled to subsist on berries during the greater part of my route. We now purchased twenty-seven horses of these Indians, and hired a guide, who assured us that he could in fifteen days take us to a large river in an open country, west of these mountains, by a route some distance to the north of the river on which they lived, and that by which the natives west of the mountains visit the plains of the Missouri, for the purpose of hunting the buffalo. Every preparation being made, we set forward with our guide on the 31st of August, through those tremendous mountains, in which we continued until the 22d of September, before we reached the lower country beyond them; on our way we met with the Olelachshoot, a band of the Tuchapaks, from whom we obtained an accession of seven horses, and exchanged eight or ten others. This proved of infinite service to us, as we were compelled to subsist on horse beef about eight days before we reached the Kooskooske.

During our passage over those mountains, we suffered every thing which hunger, cold, and fatigue could impose; nor did our difficulties, with respect to provision, cease on our arrival at the Kooskooske, for although the Pallotepallors, a numerous nation inhabiting that country, were extremely hospitable, and for a few trifling articles furnished us with an abundance of roots and dried salmon, the food to which they were accustomed, we found that we could not subsist on these articles, and almost all of us grew sick on eating them; we were obliged, therefore, to have recourse to the

flesh of horses and dogs, as food, to supply the deficiency of our guns, which produced but little meat, as game was scarce in the vicinity of our camp on the Kooskooske, where we were compelled to remain, in order to construct our perogues, to descend the river. At this season the salmon are meagre, and form but indifferent food. While we remained here, I was myself sick for several days, and my friend captain Lewis suffered a severe indisposition.

Having completed four perogues and a small canoe, we gave our horses in charge to the Pallotepallors until we returned, and on the 7th of October re-embarked for the Pacific ocean. We descended by the route I have already mentioned. The water of the river being low at this season, we experienced much difficulty in descending: we found it obstructed by a great number of difficult and dangerous rapids, in passing of which our perogues several times filled, and the men escaped narrowly with their lives. However, this difficulty does not exist in high water, which happens within the period which I have previously mentioned. We found the natives extremely numerous, and generally friendly, though we have on several occasions owed our lives and the fate of the expedition to our number, which consisted of thirty-one men. On the 17th of November we reached the ocean, where various considerations induced us to spend the winter; we therefore searched for an eligible situation for that purpose, and selected a spot on the south side of a little river, called by the natives *Netul*, which discharges itself at a small bar on the south side of the Columbia, and fourteen miles within point Adams. Here we constructed some log houses, and defended them with a common stockade work. This place we called Fort Clatsop, after a nation of that name who were our nearest neighbours. In this country we found an abundance of elk, on which we subsisted principally during the last winter. We

left Fort Clatsop on the 27th of March. On our homeward bound voyage, being much better acquainted with the country, we were enabled to take such precautions as in a great measure secured us from the want of provision at any time, and greatly lessened our fatigues, when compared with those to which we were compelled to submit in our outward bound journey. We have not lost a man since we left the Mandians, a circumstance which I assure you is a pleasing consideration to me. As I shall shortly be with you, and the post is now waiting, I deem it unnecessary here to attempt minutely to detail the occurrences of the last eighteen months.

I am, &c.

Your affectionate brother,

WM. CLARK.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

REMARKS ON THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

\* RUSSIA, by the part she has lately taken in the contests and negotiations of the western nations of Europe, has become an object of importance. The progress and condition, political and geographical, of that empire, are subjects of curious speculation; but these speculations seem hitherto to have led to many erroneous conclusions. It is common to allow our minds to be overwhelmed by the magnitude of this object, and not to discriminate between the real and apparent sources of power and wealth.

The most obvious considerations respecting Russia are suggested by the view of a map of the eastern hemisphere. The eye begins its course at the shore of the Atlantic, speedily traverses the British islands, steps with ease across the peninsulas of Spain, Italy, and Greece; and, turning northward, reaches, in a few glances, the banks of the Baltic sea and the Dnieper. This space, scol-



lopped, intersected, and checkered by gulphs, bays, and lakes, appears a minute off-set or branch of the vast extent of ground stretching to the east of it; and yet, inconsiderable as it is, it is broken up into some scores of independent sovereignties and petty principalities.

Having rested a while on the shores of the Don or Dnieper, we may look abroad to the east, north-east, and south-east. Over what immense tracts must we range, before we descry the icy capes of the north, or the islets scattered at the western limits of America, or those lofty ridges which form the southern rampart of Siberia, and divide it from the ancient seats of the Mongals, and the hereditary domains of the Chinese princes! Yet, until these are surveyed, we have not reached the limits of the Russian empire.

From surveys like these, we are apt to obtain awful conceptions of the greatness of Russia. When we compare it with the western parts of Europe, and observe that England and Wales, multiplied eighty fold, would be no more than equal in extent to Russia; that France, Spain, or Germany is to this empire as one is to twenty-five; the former kingdoms are likely to fall into contempt, to dwindle into insignificance.

These lofty images, however, will, perhaps, be somewhat lowered when we come to reflect, that ground, not inhabited or cultivated, and not capable of cultivation, is in reality of no more value, in an estimate of national greatness, than so much water. A million of acres of sand, or bog, or *glaciers*, is, indeed, inferior to a million of acres of ocean: since the water abounds with life and motion, and supplies an inexhaustible store of subsistence to those who seek it; but the snows and fogs of Kamtschatka, the dreary sands of Orenburg and Tobolsk, and the mountainous rocks of Yakutska, afford no scope for the plough, no nutrition to the wholesome plants on which civilized man must live, and

no air fit to be inhaled by human lungs.

In estimating national power, one consideration is the number of subjects. Three-fourths of this empire are comprised in Siberia; but Siberia is a realm of torpor, solitude, and dreariness. One-fifth of it lies within the arctic circle, and is wandered over by a few thousands of human creatures, whose animal and mental powers are withered and shrunk up by the horrors of the climate.

The rest of Siberia is included between the arctic circle and the fiftieth degree of north latitude.—The state of these provinces, as to fertility and population, may be known by examining the condition of one of them. Kamtschatka, which stretches from one of these parallels to the other, and may therefore lay claim to as lenient an air and pregnant a soil as any of them, will afford a suitable example.

Kamtschatka is larger than Great Britain, but will produce little corn, and contains *five thousand* people\*, which is one person to every twenty square miles. If the rest of Siberia be allowed to be twenty times more fertile and populous than this province, which is a very liberal allowance, the whole number will perhaps amount to four millions.

These millions consist partly of a great number of Tartarian tribes, whose wealth consists in their felt tents, their wooden buckets, and their herds of mares, oxen, and sheep, and partly of a drowsy and amphibious race, who live upon the flesh and oil of fish, and are examples of the utmost degradation of which our species is susceptible. They have little on which the rights of sovereignty can be exercised. They render a kind of nominal homage, and pay, as tribute, one of every ten skins which they tear from the foxes and otters of their forests and lakes.

This homage and tribute are occasionally withheld, and must be ex-

\* See Coxe's Russian Discoveries.

acted by bands of Cossacks, whose maintenance costs more than the tribute received. Such is the real state of four-fifths of the boasted empire of the Russians.

National power generally depends, not only on the number of the people governed, but, 1st, On the absoluteness of the sway. 2d, On the civilization and wealth of the people. And 3d, On the compactness and proximity of their dwellings. The last circumstance, indeed, naturally flows from the preceding one, trade and tillage being the causes and tests of national improvement, and these always tending to collect men into cities and villages.

What is pompously called the Russian empire in Asia, is a nominal and unsettled superiority over savage tribes and barren deserts. Its subjects are poor and barbarous, and dispersed, in small bands, hundreds of miles from each other; and, with few exceptions, vagabonds and rovers, without a fixed dwelling or a tilled acre.

Should we compare Russia with the dominions of the German princes, we shall be surprised at the total difference between them. Four millions of impoverished, unlettered, and almost independent savages, are dispersed through Siberia; but the same number of farmers, artisans, villagers, and townsmen, are collected together in the archdukedom of Austria alone; that is, into a space one hundred and forty times smaller than Asiatic Russia. Hence, in subordination, compactness, civilization, and wealth, Austria infinitely surpasses Siberia, while it is not inferior in the number of inhabitants.

European Russia is a country of immense extent, stretching from the forty-fifth degree north latitude to the neighbourhood of the pole. Its extent is equal to all the western kingdoms, Britain and Ireland, Spain, Portugal, France, Netherlands, Germany, Italy, Turkey, Hungary, and Poland, taken together. The middle and southern parts have a mild temperature and fertile soil, but one-third of it lies beyond the sixtieth

degree, and can therefore differ but little from Siberia. The best portion of the southern provinces is possessed by the Zaporavian, Nogay, and Cossack tribes, whose population is extremely scanty, and who are turbulent, fickle, and unprofitable subjects. The best cultivated space is that bordering on the Baltic, and which has been conquered from the Swedes.

If the whole were peopled in the same proportion as Livonia, the population would be thirty millions; but this can by no means be granted, since, on the north, so large a portion as one-third is known to be too moist and too cold for culture, and since so much of its most fertile southern ground is occupied by Tartar hordes.

If the whole were equal in population to the Ukraine and the new kingdom of Tauria, it would amount only to two millions; but this computation can be admitted as little as the other. It will be nearer, and certainly will not fall below the truth, to fix the number of European Russian subjects at *twenty millions*: but this does not exceed the population of France or Germany; and how immeasurable is the interval between the ignorance and poverty of Russia, and the arts and opulence of Flanders or Saxony!

In no country in the world are the false conceptions of magnificence and empire more prevalent than in Russia; no where have the efforts to enlarge dominion been more uniform and strenuous; no where has the art of transforming men into soldiers been practised to a greater extent. Yet the utmost military force which these vast territories can furnish, including the licentious bands of Tartar cavalry, has never exceeded the regular force of France or Austria.

Nearly half of this force (about one hundred and fifty thousand) is scattered over an extent of six thousand miles, from the fortresses on the Baltic to those in Kamtschatka, in order to acquire or maintain the superiority of the Muscovites over



barbarians, of a thousand tribes, languages, and superstitions, who are compelled to give one-tenth of their substance to enable their oppressors to lounge in their barracks, and keep their muskets bright.

The rest are occasionally employed in the field against the Turks, or stationed in the towns of Poland, Finland, and Moldavia, to enforce submission to the ukase of *the emperor of all the Russias*, and to rob the peasants of their black bread. That wretched bread which a churlish soil and domestic tyrants have made too small for wholesome subsistence, must be shared with the slaves of his imperial majesty; and the morcels wrung from ten thousand hands, come in time to be consolidated and transmuted into a shining pebble, or a hundred square yards of painted canvas. This pebble is destined, perhaps, by imperial munificence, to dangle from the button-hole of a field-marshal, and this canvas will be spread upon the wall of a saloon, and thus secure to the tenant of the building the glory of a patron of the arts.

By much the larger part of this tribute is exchanged for fire-arms, and gun-powder, and military uniforms. To what end? To stretch the limits of ideal dominion over more mountains and deserts, and to wrest their hard earnings from the fishers of the Baical, and the herdsmen of Podoli.

Finally, the whole empire of Russia, including the recent usurpations in Poland and Turkey, contains about thirty millions of subjects. In mere numbers, therefore, it is not superior to France. In every other respect, the inferiority is still more evident. In estimating national power, the importance of numbers is lessened in proportion as they are scattered over a wider space, as they are poor, ignorant, disunited, and imperfectly subjected. In all these respects, Russia may be quoted as a perfect specimen of political debility. There is no region of the globe, in which numbers have a less proportion to extent of ground,

whose soil is more sterile, and climate more unfriendly to man; whose inhabitants are more ferocious, and stupid, and forlorn, and more remote from each other in language, habits, and religion; and where the rights of sovereignty are less perfectly established, less profitable to the rulers, and less beneficial to the subjects.

R.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

PESTILENCE AND BAD GOVERNMENT COMPARED.

WHAT a series of calamities is the thread of human existence! I have heard of men who, though free themselves from any uncommon distress, were driven to suicide by reflecting on the misery of others. They employed their imagination in running over the catalogue of human woes, and were so affected by the spectacle, that they willingly resorted to death to shut it from their view. No doubt their minds were constituted after a singular manner, for we are generally prone, when objects chance to present to us their gloomy side, to change their position, till we hit upon the brightest of its aspects.

I was lately perusing, in company with two friends, the history of intestine commotions, in one of the ancient republics; one of the colonies of Magna Græcia. The nation comprehended a commercial city, peopled by eighty thousand persons, with a small territory annexed. Two factions were for a long time contending for the sovereignty, but, on one occasion, the party that had hitherto been undermost, obtained the upper place. The maxims by which they intended to deport themselves were, for some time, unknown. That they would revenge themselves upon their adversaries, in any signal or atrocious way, was by no means expected. Time, however, soon unfolded their characters and views.

The ordinary course and instruments of judicature were esteemed inadequate to their purposes, for these would not allow them to select their victims in sufficient numbers, and with sufficient dispatch. They therefore erected a secret tribunal, and formed a band of three hundred persons, who should execute, implicitly, the decrees of this tribunal. These judges were charged with the punishment of those who had been guilty of crimes against the state, and they set themselves to the vigorous performance of their office.

On other occasions, it has been usual to subject to some appearance of trial the objects of persecution; to furnish them with an intelligible statement of their offences; to summon them to an audience of their judges; and to found their sentence on some evidence real or pretended; but these rulers were actuated by no other impulse than vengeance. The members of this tribunal were convened, daily, for no other purpose than to form a catalogue of those who should be forthwith sacrificed.

The avenues to the hall where they were assembled were guarded by the troop before mentioned. Having executed this business of the day, the officers of the band of executioners were summoned, and the fatal list was put into their hands. The work of death began at night-fall; this season being adopted to render their proceedings more terrible. For this end, likewise, it was ordered that no warning should be given to the men whose names were inscribed upon this roll, but by the arrival of the messengers at their door.

These, dressed in a peculiar uniform, marched by night to the sound of harsh and lamentable music, through the streets of the mute and affrighted city. They stopped at the appointed door, and, admission being gained, peaceably or by violence, they proceeded, in silence, to the performance of their commission. The bow-string was displayed; the victim, torn from his bed, from the arms of his wife, from the embraces

of his children, was strangled in an instant; and the breathless corpse left upon the spot where it had fallen. They retired without any interruption to their silence, and ended not their circuit till the catalogue was finished.

To inflict punishment was the intention of these judges, but they considered that our own death is not, in all instances, the greatest evil that we can suffer. We would sometimes willingly purchase the safety of others at the price of our own existence. The tribunal therefore conducted itself by a knowledge of the characters of those whom its malice had selected. Sometimes the criminal remained untouched, but he was compelled to witness the destruction of some of his family. Sometimes his wife, sometimes his children, were strangled before his eyes; and sometimes, after witnessing the agonies of all that he loved, the sentence was executed on himself.

The nature of this calamity was adapted to inspire the utmost terror. No one was apprized of his fate. The list was inscrutable to every eye but that of the tribunal. The adherents to the ruling faction composed about one-third of the inhabitants. These of course were secure, and, if they did not triumph in the confusion of their foes, they regarded it with unconcern.

The rage and despair which accompanied the midnight progress of the executioners scarcely excited their attention. Their revels and their mirth suffered no interruption or abatement.

It was asked in vain, by the sufferers, when the power which thus scattered death and dismay was to end? No answer was returned; but they were left to form their judgment on the events that arose. Night succeeded night; but the murders, instead of lessening, increased in number. Many admitted the persuasion that a total extermination of the fallen party was intended; and, for a considerable period, every circumstance contri-



buted to heighten this persuasion. It was observed that the list continued gradually to swell, till the number of executions in a single night amounted to no less than two hundred.

It were worthy of some eloquent pen to describe this state of things. Surely never did the depravity of human passions more conspicuously display itself than on this stage. The most vigorous efforts were made to shake off this dreadful yoke, but the tyrants had previously armed their adherents, and guarded every avenue to a revolution with the utmost care. The city walls and gates served to stop the fugitives, and none but the members of the triumphant faction were suffered to go out. Policy required that those who furnished the city with provisions should be unmolested in their entrances and exits. In no variation of circumstances, indeed, had the wretched helots any thing to fear, for no change in their condition could possibly be for the worse.

It will hardly be believed that this state of things continued for so long a period as four months. During this time, vengeance did not pause for a single night. At the expiration of this period, suddenly, and without warning, the nightly visitations ceased, and the tribunal was dissolved. The world were now permitted to discover what limits had been assigned to the destruction. On counting up the slain, it appeared that six thousand persons had perished, and, consequently, that the purpose of the tyrants had been, not the indiscriminate massacre, but merely the decimation of their adversaries.

Having finished the perusal of this tale, I could not forbear expatiating to my friends on the enormity of these evils, and thanking the destiny that had reserved us for a milder system of manners.

"Not so fast," said Thomas. "You forget that the very city of which we are inhabitants, no longer ago than 1793, suffered evils nearly parallel to those that are here des-

cribed. In some respects the resemblance is manifest and exact. In the inscrutability of the causes that produced death; the duration of the calamity; and the proportional number of the slain, the cases are alike. Our condition was worse, inasmuch as the lingering agonies of fever are worse than the expeditious operation of the bow-string. We had to encounter the miseries of neglect and want; the cessation of all lucrative business, and the sealing up of most of the sources of subsistence, were disadvantages peculiar to ourselves. Against these may be put in the balance the misery which haunts the oppressors, and those aggravations of distress flowing from a knowledge that the authors of our calamities are men like ourselves, whom, perhaps, our own folly has armed against us. The evils which infest human society flow either from causes beyond our power to scrutinize, or from the licence of malignant passions. It would require a delicate hand to adjust truly the balance between these opposite kinds of evil; but suppose tyranny and plague, as in these cases, to destroy the same numbers in the same time, which has produced the greatest quantity of suffering? It is not easy to decide, but I am apt to think that the miseries of plague must be allowed to preponderate."

"The cases," said William, "seem to me to have very little resemblance. If I had been an inhabitant of the Greek colony, I see not how I should have been benefited by this state of affairs, whereas the yellow fever was, to me, the most fortunate event that that could have happened. I kept a store, as you know, in Water street. I was young, and was then so poor that my stock, small as it was, was obtained upon credit. I was obliged to exert the most unremitting industry to procure myself the means of living, and the very means by which I sought to live had like to have destroyed me, for my frail constitution could not support the inconveniences of inactivity and bad air. My health was rapidly declining, and

I could not afford to relinquish my business. The yellow fever, however, compelled me to relinquish it for a while.

"I took cheap lodgings in the neighbourhood of Lancaster, and country air and exercises completely reinstated me in the possession of health; but this was not all; for I formed an acquaintance with a young lady, who added three hundred pounds a year, to youth, beauty, and virtue. This acquaintance soon ripened into love, and now you see me the happiest man in the world. A lovely wife, a plentiful fortune, health, and leisure are the ingredients of my present lot, and for all these am I indebted to the yellow fever."

S.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

THE SORROWS OF WERTER.

THE recreations and studies of youth greatly influence their morals through life. The prevailing passion for novels particularly merits regard. There are some books of this kind which no parent should suffer to enter the hands of her child; which no bookseller should sell. Among these I shall mention the *Sorrows of Werter*, a book more read than any of its kind by the young, and which has proved the bane of more than one family.

There are, however, numerous novels which tend rather to enlarge the heart and to produce only the most generous emotions. It has been questioned by moralists whether Richardson should ever have drawn his character of Lovelace, because it exhibits a monster of depravity. Much may be urged against the delineation of such characters; but, so long as they exist, it appears to be no more than proper to display their deformity, in order to guard youth against them. The character of Lovelace is not dressed up in alluring colours like that of Werter; nature is displayed where it is

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depraved, in lines so strong as to excite abhorrence: Werter, on the contrary, is drawn with a richness, that, however pitiable the real character might be, the danger of a mistaken passion or an immoral indulgence of affection, is too great for a picture like this to be safely or prudently entrusted to the consideration of minds not strongly formed.

Many persons are wholly adverse to novel reading. If this sentiment were produced by a fear of the danger of particular works like Werter, or Peregrine Pickle, their motives could not be disapproved; but when it extends to the exclusion of the whole class, it does not appear to be founded in reason.

X.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

COMMERCIAL SKETCHES.

*Great Britain and the North of Europe.*

ALL civilized states have mutually an interest in each other's prosperity. The benefit which any country derives from the flourishing situation of adjoining nations is in proportion to the advances it has made in arts, manufactures, and commerce. On these grounds, it is apparent that Great Britain must be the well-wisher of neighbouring states; since they cannot increase their produce and industry, nor add to their population, without the augmented supply of those articles which she needs, and an increased demand for those which she furnishes. The interests in this case are reciprocal; and if it promotes the welfare of Britain to have the adjoining states advance in real and genuine prosperity, they have a similar reason for desiring that she should continue to be the wealthy and prosperous state which she has long been.

We may exemplify this position in the case of Russia and the northern states; and what is here laid



down, is capable of being still farther generalized.

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*Russia.*

If we look at the amount of imports into Great Britain, comparing two years of last war with two years during the peace, we shall see that the increase, comparing 1784 and 1785 with 1801 and 1802, is nearly thus :

Imports from Russia have increased from 450,000*l.* to 2,230,000*l.* that is, they are four times greater than they were ; those of Denmark have nearly doubled, and those of Sweden have done the same ; and if those two latter powers have not increased still more, it is owing to themselves : Britain cannot purchase what they have not got to sell ; and, if they do not increase their produce more rapidly, their commerce must feel the effects.

It may be hoped, that a convention being entered into, and the improbability of Russia ever being so unfortunately guided as she was in 1800, will prevent any future discussions on this subject, which, as we have seen, originated rather in private motives than in justice ; still, however, as there is a possibility that what has happened may happen again, it may not be improper to enquire into the consequences of such hostilities.

The chief trade of Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, is with England ; that would, in the first place, be interrupted ; and England, during that interruption, would find it necessary either to raise at home, or procure from America, the articles now obtained from those nations. This, we shall see, is perfectly practicable, and the trade never would return to its present state. The northern nations would then be great losers, independent of the expences of the war, which, at all events, would be considerable ; and the object for which they fought would be destroyed, whether they succeeded or failed. Let us suppose, for a moment, that England was compell-

ed to yield ; where would then be the commerce of Russia ? Is it not the naval power and greatness of England that occasions the chief consumption of naval stores in every country ? Would the materials for a few frigates, such as are maintained by the United States, support the commerce of the northern nations ? And if England were destroyed, where would be the necessity for any thing more ?

If, on the contrary, England conquered, the destruction of the rising navy of Russia would be certain ; Denmark and Sweden would sustain a loss that twenty years of commerce would not repair, particularly of such mutilated commerce as they would then enjoy.

If this vast empire was to attain to the lowest population which prevails in the European states, namely, to that of fifty to a square mile, it would count inhabitants to the number of one hundred and twenty-five millions, a change which would most materially affect the mercantile and political interests of the globe. The actual population amounts to two millions : but its revenue does not exceed ten millions ; which sum, however, will go three times as far in that country as in England.

This empire is divided into three divisions ; from the 57th degree towards the north pole forms the northern division ; between the 57th and the 50th degree of latitude forms the middle division ; and the southern division begins at the 50th degree of latitude, and extends to the southern boundary of the Russian dominions.

The northern division abounds with all sorts of fish, some cattle, wild animals, and some of the metals, and much wood, though the latter diminishes in size, as it approaches the north.

The middle division is not only preferable, from its being a more temperate climate, but because it furnishes the greatest part of the produce for the export of Russia, as well as for its manufactures. In this division grow the hemp and

flax, as well as different sorts of grain; the cattle are here generally fatter: tallow, hides, and glue are produced here in greater quantities than in the northern parts: iron, copper, silver, and gold, and by far the finest fir timber, comes from hence.

The south division is more productive in cattle than the middle division, but not equally so in other articles, though from its climate it may be made to produce fruits, wines, and most of the luxuries of life.

Grand plans for the improvement of the country and the advancement of its commerce are carrying on with the utmost zeal and ardour: vast canals have been formed, others are now forming, and more are under consideration. The North sea is already united with the Baltic, and both with the Caspian and the Black seas. Petersburg communicates by inland navigation with Astracan and the Crimea; and it will soon have intercourse by the same means with Archangel and Riga.

By means of the canals already finished, a great part of *European Russia* has a communication with one or other of the seas by which it is bounded; and, as the rivers are numerous, and a general plan is followed of constructing canals, wherever they can be useful, in a very short time, its internal communications will be such as to furnish it with the means of transporting all its produce into other parts, by means of water carriage.

There is a communication from the frontiers of China, by which the trade from thence, and that of Siberia, is carried on to the city of Petersburg. This navigation first commences on the borders of China, passing by the Selenga to the Baikal lake, from thence upon the Angara into the Yenissey, as far down as Yenissey; there the merchandise is unloaded and carried over a short tract of land, and embarked on the river Ket; from thence down that river into the Oby; from which up the Irtish, the Tobol, and thence over land to the Tchussovaia, upon which river it is embarked again

and falls into the Kama, and the Kama into the great river Wolga. By this conveyance Russia drew, some years ago, merchandise to the value of no less than twelve millions of rubles.

The increase of the Russian commerce within these last thirty years has been prodigious. The inland communications by water, and the land carriage by the sledge roads over the snow, by rendering the conveyance of goods easy and incredibly cheap, have wonderfully increased the activity and facilitated the operations of commerce.

It was not till the year 1588, that Great Britain began to trade with Russia by the way of the gulph of Finland. The vast proportion of the trade of this immense empire, which at present is engrossed by Great Britain, is generally known. The exports of Russia to Britain are to those which she makes to the rest of the world in the proportion of sixteen to seventeen, while the imports so classed are only as one to five. Russia has at some periods exported 80,000 tons of iron, of which England has been known to take 50,000; and the average export of that article at this time is calculated at 40,000 tons, of which three-fourths are carried to England. In 1803, Russia exported 15,000 tons of flax, of which two-thirds fell to Britain, and she uniformly deals in its hemp, and frequently in its grain, in the same proportion. In 1803, Russia exported 34,500 tons of tallow, at the price of nearly two millions sterling; of which quantity, 27,450 tons fell to the share of Great Britain. The waste and improvidence in regard to wood, which prevails in Russia, occasioned a temporary suspension of the trade in that article; and at this time only a very limited exportation is allowed, nearly the whole of which is furnished to the demands of the British empire. By proper management, Russia might supply the whole European market with timber.

The Black sea will furnish those articles through the Dardanelles,



which England receives by the Baltic; therefore the trade of the Black sea can never be one to be cultivated by the British: the voyage through the Marmora into the ports of the Black sea, will occupy nearly as long a period as one to Madras; and so long as the facilities are promoted, to convey the produce by the interior canals to the rivers falling into the Baltic, there never can be a trade carried on from Great Britain direct; her manufactures being in small compass and of greater value, will also be conveyed by the way of the Baltic. Indeed, when the canals of the interior, communicating with that sea, are completed, Great Britain might carry on her Turkey trade through that channel in time of war, rather than the circuitous one through the Mediterranean, loaded with heavy freights and high insurance, besides detention for convoy.

As Russia extends in civilization and refinement, her wants will increase, and her commerce extend; the soil and climate around this sea will derive every assistance from so great a power, and the encouragement given to commercial adventure in general, which is so much fostered as it is, by his present imperial majesty, that it may probably soon become very great, and be the cause of giving an entire new turn, not only to the commerce of the Baltic, but, most likely, to the politics of Europe. We have seen a wonderful change in Russia, in a short time, in transplanting its trade from the White to the Baltic sea; its next flight may, in the course of events and a short time, be to the Black sea.

The uncommon attention given by the Russian government to promote the trade of the Black sea, and establish the port of Odessa, is a good deal similar to that of Peter the great, in the building of Petersburg, and the making of Sebastopol a royal dock, and sufficiently proves the great importance attached to the situation and commerce in this quarter by Russia.

### *Odessa.*

The port of Odessa is situated on a bay formed by the Black sea, thirty miles distant from the mouth of the Dniester, and sixty from that of the river Dnieper. It is a secure and convenient bay, with a great depth of water; consequently it is seldom closed by the frost, which attracted the attention of the Russian government when it came into their possession, so that it is likely to become a second Petersburg.

An unprecedented activity is now displayed in the construction of moles, lazarettos, and buildings of every kind: large sums are granted for that purpose, without suffering this important concern to be delayed by any correspondence. One of the new moles has already a length of 215 fathoms, and the other of 180, each of which is to be extended to 315 fathoms, and raised seven feet and a half above the surface of the sea. They are constructed after the manner of the piers at Bayonne, and will be made from ten to twelve feet wide, exclusive of a parapet with embrasures for 30 pieces of cannon. The port will comprise an area of 60,000 square fathoms, and its entrance will be 150 fathoms wide, so that the ships may get in with wind at north-east, which otherwise is adverse. The port has a good anchorage, the bottom being of a fine sand and gravel. The depth of water within the port is sufficient to admit the largest ships of war.

It is intended to render the Dniester entirely navigable, so as to bring down the produce of Galicia, and to form an aqueduct to Odessa. Round this new city it is an open country, not having any wood, which appears the only inconvenience.

So rapidly has its commerce increased, that in the year 1803, before the first of November, there had already arrived 502 ships, of which 472 were loaded and sailed.

In November, 1804, its population amounted to 15,000 souls, and above

2900 houses were already inhabitable, buildings were extending, and plans for its magnificence multiplying.

Its chief export has hitherto consisted in grain, but, from its situation, it will be the great depot for the produce which can be conveyed down the different rivers, which fall into the bay near to it.

His majesty gave directions and authority to the duke de Richlieu, to execute his favourite plan of raising this new city, and promoting this new channel of commerce, and at the same time issued an ukase, dated March 5, 1804, to make this port an entrepot, which shows the great consideration this new Alexandria enjoys.

To give this new port every possible advantage besides that of being an entrepot, it has particular privileges granted it for a transito trade, by a ukase addressed to the directing senate, dated St. Petersburg, the 5th of March, 1804.

As a further proof of the great attention paid by government to the Black sea, we find that Sebastopol, situated so advantageously upon the promontory of the Crimea, is made an exclusive dock and port for the imperial navy.

In an infant commercial state like Russia, before enlightened views and corresponding habits have prevailed, and have generated in the trading part of the people a nice sense of honour and scrupulous integrity, the following institution must be highly beneficial:

The principal articles of Russian exportation must be examined or bracked by competent sworn brackers: for this purpose, in 1790, sixteen Russian and fourteen foreign brackers for hemp; five Russian and three German for tallow and oil; four Russian and three German for herrings (the Russian herring-brackers also brack caviar and isinglass); one Russian and two German for tobacco; five Russian and three German for yufts; two

Russian and one German for horse-hair and hog's bristles; one Russian and two German for hare-skins, were appointed.

Such are the excellent regulations relating to the brackers, that if, through any neglect or fraud, an inferior quality is passed, which ought not to be, the bracker, whose name is affixed in some articles, and especially appointed for others, is liable to a very severe punishment as soon as the proof is produced, so that a precaution like the one mentioned prevents the possibility of an inferior article being substituted for the real one, and every merchant is sure that what he purchases is the very article he agrees for.

The merchant, in his purchases, has only to settle with a broker, who is likewise approved by the college of commerce, and who makes a contract betwixt the buyer and seller. The goods are received and the business is dispatched.

The articles subject to brack are: hemp, flax, tallow, hides, yufts, isinglass, glue, caviar, hare-skins, bristles, wax, cow and horse hair, linseed, hempseed, and train-oil, tobacco, rhubarb, masts, pot and pearl ashes, saltpetre, castor of beaver, &c., &c.

A certain rate is fixed to be paid to the bracker by the purchaser, which is very reasonable.

#### *Prussia.*

Prussia, made up as it is of an aggregate of provinces, dependent heretofore on different states, has not reached that uniformity of manners, habits, and maxims, as well as of laws and usages, which distinguish older states; and, consequently, in different parts of it, we find different modes of transacting business. Though the principles of commerce are little comprehended, in no state are trade and manufactures the objects of more attention, and of the protection of the government; nor have its effects, though not always the most judicious, been on the whole without success. Prussia has,



within a century and a half, established a basis for its future commercial and maritime greatness, by acquiring part of Pomerania, Polish Prussia, Dantzic and Thorn, and that part of Poland which is most favourably situated for the Baltic trade. The whole length of these districts forms a coast of nearly four hundred miles on the shore of the Baltic; in which distance some of the finest rivers fall into it.

In 1799, the manufactures of Prussia were rated at seven millions sterling, and since that time they have considerably increased. The manufacture of linen in Silesia is the most considerable among them, and is unrivalled by any other in the whole extent of Germany. The bleaching is better conducted there than in Ireland, and a finer sort is made than any of which that island can boast. Among the Prussian trading towns, Embden, Stettin, Königsburg, Braunsburg, Dantzic, Elbing, and Memel are the most considerable; so great is the trade of the latter, that its exports, in 1802, amounted to six hundred thousand pounds. Its principal branch is timber; which article alone employs seven hundred sail of ships, and may be calculated to amount in value to 350,000*l.* per annum.

#### *Dantzic.*

Dantzic, from the earliest period, was the granary of the north, and, to judge of its piles of warehousing for that purpose, its trade must have been considerable; indeed, no place can be better accommodated in this respect, nor better regulations to prevent fire, robbery, or any irregularity.

The principal warehouses here are upon an excellent plan, situated on an island formed by the river Mottlau, running close by the city on one side, and another branch, by what is called the Forestadt, on the other. There are three bridges on each side of the island, at the end of streets over it, from the city to the Forestadt. In the night, all the

bridges are drawn up, except two at the end of the main street, across the centre of the island, communicating betwixt the old city and the Forestadt. On this island are all the principal warehouses for ashes, hemp, linens, and the extensive granaries, containing seventeen streets, besides the large centre one, running the length of the island. To guard these warehouses are from twenty to thirty ferocious dogs of a large size, amongst which are blood-hounds, let loose at eleven o'clock in the night, to guard the warehouses, which are nearly equally divided by the main street, which passes over the middle of the island, as before described. To command and to keep the dogs within their districts, as well as the passengers from harm, at the end of each of the streets, leading to the main one, are large high gates run across: no light is allowed, nor any person suffered to live on this island. These dogs prowl about the whole night, and create great terror. It would be impossible otherwise to keep property secure among the hordes of Poles, Jews, and others, who resort here, as no exemplary punishment would be half as efficacious as the dread of these dogs.

In winter, when the water is frozen over, to keep the dogs in their proper district, there are three keepers placed at particular avenues, with whips to keep them in their range.

No fire or robbery was ever known; and the expence to each building, with the immense property they contain, is very reasonable. Vessels, either from the interior or other quarters, lying alongside these warehouses, are not allowed to have a fire, or light of any kind on board, nor is a sailor or any other person suffered even to smoke. Their regulations partly extend to all shipping lying in the harbour.

The Pole does not conceive himself paid for buying grain or other articles in the interior, the purchase of vessels, or making floats, and the expence of bringing it down, unless

he gets sixty cents per bushel for his rye, and a dollar per bushel for his wheat. If the prices are less, no supplies can be expected down from Poland. The quantities of grain sent from thence to Dantzic in any year do not so much depend on great crops, as the plenty of water in the rivers for easy navigation in summer, and the high prices in Dantzic, as an inducement to bring it down.

Since Great Britain has imported such vast quantities of grain, Poland has participated in the advantages of that trade more than any country whatever. Next comes Mecklenburgh. Since 1793, the riches which have been brought into Dantzic, by the exportation of grain and wood to Great Britain, is far beyond any moderate calculation: the quantity of specie abounding in this city, for its trade and size, exceeds any thing of the kind in any other place in Europe, and that chiefly within the short period mentioned. The greatest part of these riches have, no doubt, been occasioned by the great demand and importation of Britain.

#### *Lubec.*

Lubec, like all the other free imperial cities, is very limited in its territory; surrounded by Holstein, Hanover, and Mecklenburg. It produces nothing within itself, and therefore entirely depends on foreign commerce. It is an entrepot betwixt the Baltic and the southern parts of Europe; the produce of the former it receives to wait for the demand of the latter, before the navigation to the East sea can be open in spring.

Its advantageous situation, as the centre betwixt the Baltic and the south of Europe, likewise for the interior trade of the north-west of Germany from and to the Baltic, in receiving and transporting the produce of each to the other, will make it always a place of great interest: while it has the farther advantage

of partaking of the trade by the Baltic on one side, that of the Elbe on the other, and it is only forty miles by land from Hamburg: with the facility of the Holstein canal joining the Baltic and the North sea, it has the Stecknitz canal directly from its own harbour to the Elbe, at Lauenburg.

#### *Swedish Trade.*

The produce of Sweden for exportation consists of iron, tar, pitch, and a little copper: but in other articles it furnishes scarcely sufficient for its own consumption. A great increase has lately taken place in the quantity of Swedish iron produced, which now amounts to upwards of 50,000 English tons, and is to be ascribed to its superior quality, and the more convenient forms which are given to it. Of this quantity, Great Britain purchases more than the half. Tar is the next considerable article of exportation, and it is superior to that which is procured from Russia and America.

It would be of the greatest national benefit to Sweden, to complete the junction between its eastern and western canals, in order to unite the Baltic and the North sea through the centre of her territory, since it would lay the foundation of independence in passing the Sound, not only in her favour, but in that of other nations.

#### *Tonningen.*

Tonningen is a small place, scarcely known to the world till the blockade of the Elbe and the Weser; since which time it has grown into notoriety.

Its population, in 1769, was only 1487. The resident inhabitants, in 1803, were only 1924, but, on account of the great influx of strangers, the many establishments, and the business of the Elbe, the Weser, and that betwixt the Baltic and North seas, passing through here,



it is as crowded as a place possibly can be, and not inferior, in charge and expence, to Hamburg, when in the zenith of its commercial career.

This place, which has the trade of the continent now passing through it, is a small town in the duchy of Schleswig, on the right bank of the river Eyder, not far from where it falls into the North sea, betwixt Eyderstadt and Dithmarschen; it has, for the considerable commerce it now has, bad accommodations, having but a small creek, which runs a few hundred yards in a curve from the river, by the town, and in which not more than two or three small vessels can lie abreast, if it is necessary to land and take in their cargoes there; but the vessels in general lie at anchor in the open river, above the town, where they load and discharge.

#### *The Sound.*

With regard to Zealand, it is well known that, on its entrance point in the north-west, stands the castle of Cronenburg, which is within a mile of Elsinour, and exactly opposite to Helsenburgh, on the Swedish coast; which two fortifications command the Sound, so that all the ships which pass are liable to be interrupted by them. The Great Belt on the other side of Zealand is not so narrow as the Sound: but the islands on all sides, and the circuitous navigation, both before it is entered and after a vessel has passed it, render the passage by the Sound preferable for ships sailing out of or into the Baltic sea.

From the year 1348 till 1659, that is, for 311 years, the Sound duties caused continual disturbances, and, besides other evils, such as the destruction of the Danish fleet repeatedly, those quarrels occasioned Copenhagen to be burnt twice. The English, Dutch, and French, at last, in 1659, entered into a union to compel the Danes to fix those duties permanently on a reasonable footing;

yet, even that did not lay the matter to rest entirely, for there have been contests with Sweden on the same point; and, so late as 1720, there was still a misunderstanding; and with the Dutch in 1731.

In 1653, that is, a century and a half ago, it was farmed by the Dutch at a sum equal to 35,000*l.*, which was equal to about 100,000*l.* at the present time.

With respect to the right by which this toll is demanded, or why Denmark has any greater or better title to it than Sweden, though it has often been disputed, yet it has so long been submitted to, that time appears to have settled the question of right.

The net duties collected here average annually about 600,000 rix dollars.

#### *Denmark.*

If the present oppression of the Dutch provinces continues, many of the inhabitants will emigrate to Holstein, and carry with them the true spirit of commerce, which appears to be the only thing wanting to make that state one of the most flourishing parts of Europe. The ordinary quantity of corn exported annually from the Baltic amounts in value to about two millions: but it has in some years reached the sum of eight millions, which is more than the regular profit of all the British West India islands put together! The share of Great Britain and Ireland in the Baltic trade is more than two thirds of the whole, and its cost to the country is nearly nine millions.

#### *British Trade to Germany.*

The British trade to Germany has for several years taken commodities to the amount of eight millions; these consist of a tolerably equal assortment of East and West India produce, and of their manufactures at home, such as woollens, cottons, and hard-ware. If the same

spirit prevailed in the empire of Germany that has been shown in Russia, the interior navigation of that country would not only produce a source of riches to itself, but give great facility to and increase commerce in general. The restrictions which affect the transport of goods along the Elbe defeat the great advantages which that fine river commands: but at some future period it will convey the principal commerce of Europe.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

THE HONEST MAN.

*A Portrait.*

An honest man's the noblest work of God.

AVARICE, carried to an unusual excess, is sometimes ranked among diseases; but it is certainly a kind of insanity the most consistent, uniform, and harmless, of any that appears on the list. It produces less visible and direct injury to others, and is, with regard to the subject of it, more nearly allied to true wisdom than any other frailty or disease of the mind.

This passion seems divisible into two branches. It is a propensity to accumulate, either by active exertions, by efforts of ingenuity and labour, or merely by the sparing use and the safe keeping of that revenue which is regular and fixed. In order to increase our store, it is not always necessary to augment our profits, by striking out new paths of gain, or exercising new artifices of extortion; for if our early industry, or that of our ancestors, has given us an annual revenue, either as interest or rent, our hoards may be increased merely by receiving and retaining what is legally and periodically due to us. It is not requisite that we should add to our stock; that we should violate

the letter or spirit of the law, or be guilty of any indisputable infraction of equity. It is merely requisite, in order to boundless accumulation, that I should keep what the law and what equity bestows on me.

These remarks are suggested by the character of one of my friends, with regard to whom I have often been uncertain whether he may justly claim the appellation of a miser. I shall conceal, for obvious reasons, his real name, and present him to my readers under that Caruthers.

Caruthers was the only son of a merchant who died in the midst of successful business, and in the possession of considerable real property. The father had diligently trained his son to his own profession, and entertained no ambition but that of leaving, at his death, his station occupied by a being exactly of the same habits and pursuits with himself. The young man was docile and obsequious; he performed, quietly and faithfully, whatever duty was assigned to him, and showed a species of capacity which, if it did not exceed, by no means fell short of the rank and profession in which he was placed.

His modes were regular and frugal, and did not differ essentially from those of his father. His expences, like his tasks, appeared to be the fruits of habit and obedience; and his frugality seemed to flow not from a lust of gain, but from the absence of desire.

At the age of twenty-four, he lost his father. It was an event which caused a few tears and sighs; but he quickly retrieved his customary tranquillity. His first business was to wind up his mercantile transactions, to receive his dues, and discharge his debts, and this was done without quarrelling or noise. Some of his debtors were unable to answer his claims; but he molested them not with menaces and importunities. He called on them often enough to show them that they were not forgotten; but he made no com-



plaints, dropped no intimations of poverty, and never talked of resorting to the law. Their excuses were received without anger or impatience, and the fiftieth application was made, and the fiftieth refusal endured, with as much equanimity and good-humour as the first. Perseverance, however, finally succeeded.

He turned his stock and his dues, as fast as he received them, into houses and lands. He dismissed his father's servants, let the house, and placed himself in a private family as a boarder, at a moderate expence. His expences, with regard to clothing, were regulated by the plainest standard. He never was mean or ragged; he consulted neatness in the choice of his apparel, and cleanliness and decency in the change and renewal of it. He avoided all kinds of expensive amusements, shunned all society but that of the family in which he lived, and of those whom he casually met with in his diurnal walks.

Being very accurate and regular in the preservation and arrangement of his clothes, and being a stranger to violent movements of any kind, his apparel preserved its texture and gloss longer than is customary, and he dressed with less cost than those who were less neat and elegant in their garb than himself.

By these arrangements, he continues to live upon one-tenth of his original revenue. In what manner, it may be asked, does he consume the remainder? He has no family and no near kindred whose poverty requires his assistance. Spontaneous charity is utterly unknown to him. He never carries money in his pockets, and, consequently, finds it easy to resist the importunity of casual beggars. When applied to, in a direct manner, in favour of public institutions, he urges, without seeming embarrassment, the want of money; or, if that plea cannot be truly urged, he states some common-place objection to the scheme. To this objection, in spite of argument and opposition, he calmly and stedfastly adheres.

He sedulously avoids loans. He never borrows from others, and never lends. His money is disposed of with so much expedition, that a borrower seldom finds him in possession of the sum that is wanted. When this excuse is wanting, he makes no scruple to refuse the loan, mildly but explicitly. Being in no habits of intimate and cordial intercourse with any human being, he is less exposed to importunities of this kind, and suffers less embarrassment in refusing compliance.

The surplus of his annual expences is speedily and invariably invested in houses and lots. Building is a province that requires personal attention and much intercourse with others, and these are inconveniences which he chuses to avoid. He contents himself, therefore, with purchasing what others have erected.

His purchases are generally judicious, for he has no employment which calls away his attention from this object. Long application has made him perfectly skilled in the changes of value incident to this species of property, and it is vain, therefore, for any one to hope to take advantage of his precipitation or his ignorance. All his contracts are made with caution and deliberation, and his mode of life makes him perfectly master of all the considerations requisite to a prudent bargain.

In consequence of this knowledge, he shuns every occasion for bickering or dissention. He takes care to proceed, in the choice of objects of purchase, with circumspection; to have the terms of every contract legal and explicit; avoids litigation, by shunning the mazes of mortgages and instalments, contingent conditions and future limitations, and scrupulously adheres to every promise and engagement, even where the law would countenance delay or non-compliance.

In this way have passed the last forty-five years of his life. By an adherence to this system, he has made himself one of the most opulent proprietors in the city where

he dwells. Last year, his income did not fall short of thirty thousand dollars.

Is the passion which actuates Caruthers avarice? All his actions have but one tendency, all his thoughts are employed on one object: the increase of his property. Not a farthing is bestowed through the impulse of benevolence; no expensive amusement is ever pursued; no toy or luxury is ever purchased; all intellectual gratifications are unknown to him. These seem to manifest the influence of avarice.

Some of the most noted ingredients of avarice are not, however, to be found in his character. The lust of gain does not prompt him to uncommon or intense exertions of mind or body. Neither does it impose upon him any remarkable or sordid expedients of abstinence or self-denial. It does not impel him to the use of artifice and cunning, nor to the rigorous exercise of all his legal rights. He disburses money when necessary, and performs his contracts without apparent reluctance, and without delay, and without cavilling. He betrays no solicitude about the safety of his property, the solvency of his debtors, and the punctuality of his tenants. It is not from his words so much as from his actions, that you perceive in what degree the pursuit of riches occupies his thoughts. He inquires and converses about nothing but sales and purchases; but this appears to flow merely from the inaptitude of his mind, in consequence of native or acquired incapacity to all other subjects of speculation.

Is he an *honest* man? He does what he wills with his own, but injures nobody. No one is the worse by his means. He never resorted to the law to effectuate his claims on others, and was never himself even menaced with a prosecution. He does not always exact what is due to him, and renders to others, with unexceptionable good faith, whatever is legally their due.

Let us then consider: yes, Caruthers is not munificent or liberal;

he is not a public or a private benefactor; he does not employ the means which he possesses for the benefit of those around him; he never, by direct means, soothed the pangs or augmented the comforts of a human being; and yet, surely, Caruthers is an *honest man*, though, in spite of the poet's assertion, he is certainly not *the noblest work of God*.

W.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

ON THE NUMBER OF BOOKS.

Books are like autumn leaves, their number such  
That e'en to count them is for man too much.

I WAS in company, the other evening, where the benefits and evils of *much reading* were discussed. The various remarks on this subject at length led to an inquiry what was the actual number of books existing in the world, and whether it were possible for any man to read the whole of them. Several modes of ascertaining this number were suggested, but none of them were free from objection. Every computer was guilty of some mistake, and either wholly omitted some classes of writers, or mistated the number of that class which was included in his calculation.

At length, one of the company, who had been previously silent, was called upon for his opinion. In answer to this call, he observed, that the multitude of books might be powerfully inferred from the mistakes which had been committed, and from the uncertainty which appeared to cleave to the question. Books are so numerous, their topics are so infinitely diversified, and human capacity is so generally limited to one or two topics of inquiry, that few men have qualified themselves even to estimate the number of publications.



There is one class of books in the world, continued he, most calculated to throw light upon this question, and that is the class of catalogues. Every permanent and extensive collection of books, in Europe, has a catalogue of its treasures, from which the number of works and volumes in these collections, at least, may be known. Many persons have likewise amused their leisure, in compiling lists of books, either such as relate to a particular branch of knowledge, or such as have been written within a given period, or by the authors of a particular nation. I remember to have once seen a book that called itself "*Catalogus Catalogorum*," a catalogue of catalogues. It was a compact volume, and could scarcely contain less than two hundred and fifty pages. Each article was accompanied with a brief explanation of how, when, and by whom it was compiled; which, however, did not occupy more than half a page: if so, the number of articles did not, probably, fall short of five hundred. The deliberate perusal of this work alone would require a day, and if the catalogues enumerated were equally copious, it follows, that the perusal of catalogues alone would demand daily and incessant application of nearly a year and a half.

If you will allow this instance to support a conclusion, we may calculate that all these lists, added together, would amount to two hundred and fifty thousand names of books. Each book consisted of one or more volumes, and every work differed from its neighbour in bulk. Some, like the homilies of Chrysostom, the philosophical history of Brucker, or the anatomical library of Haller, might occupy a half score of quartos. It is, therefore, a moderate estimate, to suppose that each work, on an average, would demand, in its cursory perusal, four days. At this rate, and excluding sabbath days from our reckoning, the whole number would consume *three thousand* years; or, supposing thirty years of a life to be constant-

ly devoted to books, and the task of reading to be performed with all possible celerity, a long-lived and indefatigable student might expect to read a *hundredth part* of the books that have been written.

The largest collection of printed books known in the world, is that of the kings of France. Many years ago it consisted of ninety-four thousand works. From the mode in which it is conducted, it must experience continual augmentations. The present number, not improbably, exceeds a hundred thousand; so that one collection merely contains two-fifths of what I have assigned to be the whole number. This library alone would, therefore, afford a reader constant employment for *twelve hundred years*: a conclusion, at first sight, incredible; and yet sustained by the most plausible evidence.

One may venture to affirm, that no man, however stupendous and diversified his reading, has read over the name of every book that has been printed, even in his native language. Each student has a path of his own, from which he deviates rarely and with reluctance. None but those whose passion is concentrated merely in the names of books, like the compilers of catalogues, are likely to come near the truth; and even of the man who composed a catalogue of catalogues, it cannot be imagined either that he read every article in the catalogue which he enumerates, or that he did not omit, in his collection, the title of some catalogue which, though once in print, had since disappeared, or which, though extant in his time, was placed beyond his reach.

This supposition may be made still more narrow. It is likely that the most ardent student, and most diligent collector, has not seen the names of all the works that have been printed in his favourite science within the last fifty years, in his native tongue; much less likely is it that he has seen the names of publications during a longer period, or printed in any foreign language;

and how precipitate and ignorant must be *he* who pretends or imagines that he has read the *books themselves* !

Twenty years ago, a catalogue of English law books was published ; the number, exclusive of various editions, amounts to fifteen hundred. Few of these are comprised in a single volume of moderate bulk. Most of them are quartos, and extend to four and five volumes. One of them occupies no less than twenty-four folios\*. What appetite has been so voracious as to devour the contents ? What eye has been so active as to glance over the title-pages of, at least, three thousand ponderous volumes of law ? No man could read this number, though his reading were rapid, and interrupted only by sleep and meals, in less than *thirty years* !

English theology has funds of reading at least as copious as English law. Sermon and system writers in theology are as numerous as the reporters and abridgers of law cases. It is difficult to ascertain this number ; but we may form some judgment of the written, if not of the printed compositions of this kind, by comparing a few facts.

The number of parishes in South Britain has never been fixed at less than ten thousand. In each of these, one sermon, at least, is delivered weekly, and may be presumed to be always written. If each sermon can be read in fifteen minutes, to read all that are composed in one year would consume forty years ; every day, and ten hours of each day, being supposed to be devoted to it.

If English theology and law be thus abundant, what must we think of those of the continental nations of Europe ? The Roman jurisprudence is the *lex communis* of Italy, Portugal, Spain, France, Germany, and the north. The laborious and voluminous genius of the civilians have become proverbial ; and their heavy compositions as far surpass those of English jurists in number, as the

population of the continent exceeds that of the island.

Historical works, since the revival of arts in Europe, must compose a stupendous catalogue. The narratives of original actors and observers, from the reign of Charlemagne to the French revolution, now actually in print, cannot be stated with any degree of precision ; but is it extravagant to say, that, during the last three hundred years, there have been a hundred publications of this kind yearly, including, in this estimate, all the western nations of Europe, and including every work in which the actions of human beings are recorded ? Many will think that the estimate is not exorbitant, if limited to England alone.

Men who record their own actions are not merely those who are engaged in war and politics. That importance which every man's affairs possess in his own eyes, has produced innumerable works. Voyagers, artists, philosophers, and especially religious men, have been as prone to publish their history as statesmen and generals.

The biography of religious persons is seldom of any value, and is rarely known to exist to any but their own followers, or the adherents of their own sect. An example of this may be found in the society of quakers. George Fox, the founder of this sect, lived somewhat more than a hundred and fifty years ago. Six generations have since elapsed, and the society has gradually increased ; but the whole number of quakers now alive, in Europe and America, probably does not exceed fifty thousand persons. This sect is chiefly known to the rest of mankind by two works, George Fox's Journal, and Barclay's Apology. The most inquisitive, who derive their knowledge from public libraries and popular catalogues, will be surprised to hear that the biographical publications, merely of this sect, amount to more than five hundred. The number of controversial pieces, great and small, is immense. The same thing occurs in the history

\* Viner's Abridgment.



of all the christian sects which have arisen since the origin of printing.

If, however, we chuse a statement unquestionably moderate, and suppose that the annual publications of the biographical and historical kind have been equal to a hundred yearly, during three centuries, throughout all Europe, the whole number will be thirty thousand. He that would undertake to read all these, supposing all to be accessible, must first discover the secret of protracting his existence a hundred degrees beyond the usual term.

Should we extend the same computations to the tribe of tales, novels, and romances, to poetry, and the various departments of physical and moral science, we should find ample confirmations of my original assertion, that to read all the books that have been *printed* would require not less a period than three thousand years.

O.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

THE ARTS OF LONDON GAMBLERS.

BEING continually on the watch for their prey, whenever gamblers hear of a youth, a young heir especially, or any man who has money, and has been seen at a gaming-table, they immediately begin to study how to ensnare their prey: they consult each other; one agrees to play with him, and suffer him to win, taking care that the sum shall not be large; others stimulate him by praise, and by betting on his head; and others again will pretend to dispute, whether he can or cannot play so well as some one of their own companions. I am now speaking of games of skill.

If they find that the person whom they wish to pillage has any knowledge of them, accompanied by a fear of their tricks and a sense of his danger, they call in some fresh associate, one of their fraternity, and generally one who they think can

best assume the character that may most easily deceive. Thus the gambler will appear perhaps as a captain, a country squire, a sea-officer flush of money, or any other which they suppose to be most eligible.

To this their associate they will pretend to be utter strangers; and, if he, whom they hope to strip, be inclined to be himself a rascal, if he should but learn the means, they will offer to join with him, under a pretence that they may mutually strip the false captain, or whatever their associate affects to be. Their only object is to induce their well-feathered pigeon to play, and to stake his money: they then consider themselves as secure, and so they generally are.

A well-feathered pigeon is a cant phrase, common to gamblers, and signifies a person with money at command, and having a desire to game without any knowledge of the gamester's arts. To pigeon a man is to win, or rather to cheat him of his money. To pluck him is another of their elegant figures. A rook, a greek, and a blackleg, are the most ordinary appellations to signify a gambler. A flat and a sharp are synonymous to a pigeon and a rook.

One of these common and highly dangerous arts is to play a match (at billiards or tennis, especially) with each other, and to agree among themselves that he shall win by whom the most can be gained. This is a secret known only to themselves; for a by-stander, who should even know them well, seldom knows all of them; and perhaps some fellow, genteelly dressed and pretending to bet foolishly, is but placed there as a decoy. Any stranger that bets wagers in a common gaming place contributes to pick his own pocket.

Deceit is so habitual to these fellows, and they find such pleasure in practising it successfully, that they do not in the least scruple to plunder each other. A gambler is himself never certain that the gambler, who pretends to be his most intimate

friend, is not concerting schemes for his ruin : of this I have frequently been a witness.

One evening a tradesman of supposed property, who was thought to have a strong passion for gaming, with the desire to practise all its rascalities, and therefore one who was certain to fall the prey of gamblers, came into a room where they assembled, and was soon after followed by a couple of gamblers. One of them took from his pocket a tobacco or snuff-box, and asked the tradesman if he could open it ? The latter looked at it, pretended to make several ineffectual trials, and handed it round that others might also try if they could be more successful.

The master of the house was of course a gambler, and it was put into his hands. He thought himself more than a match for the tradesman, and after trying a little while, and thinking he perceived what the secret was, or expecting perhaps that the gambler who brought the box would discover it to him, he offered to bet the tradesman twenty guineas, on these conditions : they should each have the box in their possession fifteen minutes, and, if one succeeded in the opening of it and the other failed, the former should be declared the winner.

The tradesman at first seemed to hesitate, examined the box again and again, said no, he found he could not do it ; and then, suddenly appearing to take courage, offered to make the bet of twenty guineas a hundred.

The proposal was instantly accepted : the tradesman, it was agreed, should make the first trial ; and he retired into a private room, accompanied by the landlord of the house, and the gambler who brought the box.

When ten of the fifteen minutes were elapsed, the tradesman pretended to be completely certain he could not perform the operation, and first made an offer of five guineas, then of ten, to be released from the bet. The gambler, whose

box it was, gave the landlord an encouraging sign, and he consequently refused. Just, however, within the quarter of an hour, the tradesman exclaimed, I have it ; and immediately presented the box open.

The landlord's turn to make the attempt now came : the box was pretended to be given to him, and he himself began to doubt that he should lose. He prophesied truly ; the quarter of an hour had elapsed, without any discovery made by him of the secret, and he was adjudged to have lost his hundred guineas, which he paid with a very reluctant and a very foolish air.

The money was scarcely out of his possession, before he began to suspect he had been tricked. His suspicions were right : and the two gamblers, his supposed friends, had contrived this trick with the tradesman who was allowed to share. They had procured two boxes of similar appearance, the one of which might be opened by certain secret arrangements ; but the other, though it had the same apparent mechanism, could not.

Of this trick I was a witness. The landlord dared not take any legal redress ; his own cheating arts were too notorious, and he was laughed at for having been so easily pigeoned. The brain of a gambler, if he be a cunning fellow, is continually exerting itself to contrive new modes of deceiving, or to profit by the old in some new way.

It is well known to sober calculators, that the profits of persons who keep EO tables, and the bank at faro, and rouge et noir, are great. Still, however, these bankers are obliged to be most carefully on their guard against one another, and especially against the people whom they employ.

At a fashionable faro bank, then nightly kept in Pall Mall, a foreigner one night appeared, and had so great a run of fortune that he carried off twelve or fifteen hundred pounds.

About a week afterwards he returned, staked higher than he had



ever done before, and took away a still larger sum.

It was strange! according to all calculation, this could not continue. He came, however, a third night, and fairly broke the bank.

The mystery was discovered when it was too late: it was a concert between him and the dealer of the cards, although the dealer had a share himself in the bank, for they were seen sharing the money in the dark, under the walls of Lansdown-house.

If men could be made sensible of the mad risk they run, when they encourage a spirit of gaming, if they were not blind to the narrow selfishness, the odious passions to which it gives birth, the desire of gaining that which may be, and often is, the destruction of families, the hazard of being exposed to equal destruction themselves, and the contemptible and disgusting nature of such covetousness, did they, I say, but consider this, there would soon be no gamblers; for they could not long exist, were they deprived of the spoils of the unwary.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

### THE REFLECTOR.

NO. XIV.

PERHAPS it is necessary to the preservation of our love for mankind, that we do not too closely examine their actions, and trace them to the motives in which they originated, lest we might be disappointed by discovering that good actions sometimes are the consequence of motives less honourable and praiseworthy than the actions themselves; that what we consider as the spontaneous production of a grateful heart, has its root fixed in the fruitful soil of self-interest; and that those actions which seem to aim at relieving the miseries of a world, are not the effect of expansive benevolence, but

are generated in the ardent fire of ambition.

I am not ignorant that there have been writers who describe all our actions as originating in self-love. Perhaps they may have believed what they wrote; perhaps not. It may have gratified their vanity by making the world believe they had more penetration than others, and in attempting it they may have ventured to defend a doctrine, which they themselves believed erroneous and chimerical. Be this as it may, there are those who unfortunately advocate the opinion. Unfortunately I have said; I will not now attempt to prove it so, but proceed with the subject I intended to dwell upon in the present number.

Happily for us, God alone can "weigh the thoughts of the heart," and all human penetration is vainly exerted to discover the characters with which it is impressed. Were it otherwise, could its deepest recesses be laid open and exposed to human view, what an astonishing subject of contemplation would it afford! what a wonderful display of the various motives which actuate it! how gratifying, and, at the same time, how humiliating a spectacle! How pure, how noble, how disinterested the motives of some; how foul, how base, how selfish those of another! How great the motive of one action; how little those of another, even in the same person, at different times, and under different circumstances! We should, perhaps, see the true patriot, inspired only by the love of his country, sacrificing every thing to the advancement of its interest, and the establishment and perpetuity of its glory; while, on the other hand, the noisy declaimer continually vociferating on the strength of his attachment, his disinterestedness, and the general purity of his motives; using every mean to advance his own views of personal or family aggrandizement; careless whether it eventually produced happiness or misery to that community whose interest he seems to have so

much at heart, or, what is worse, seeking to gratify some baser passion, by sacrificing its interest or its existence. We might probably see hatred assuming the garb of love, love that of indifference, revenge that of friendship, and indifference or disgust those of politeness and attachment; many concealing their real sensations, the better to effect the real purpose they have respectively in view. It may not, perhaps, be uninteresting to bestow a little attention on an inquiry into the merit of actions, good in the abstract, but arising from motives either good, bad, or merely indifferent. Whatever may be the motive to any act, the latter must and necessarily does maintain its own independent character. If I receive a benefit, the motive of my benefactor in bestowing in no wise regulates the degree of advantage I receive from it; and, while his motive is unknown to me, I owe him all the gratitude which beneficence ought to inspire in a well-constituted mind. Here (as far as relates to my knowledge of it) the motive is neither good nor bad. If his beneficence originated solely in the interest he felt for my welfare, my gratitude is increased by the consideration of his disinterestedness, and, independent of selfish considerations, I love and esteem the man who is capable of such exalted sentiments. Should I find his beneficence was not exerted without a view to some possible though uncertain return, I consider him as having acted under the influence of a powerful, and by no means uncommon principle, and scarcely love him less, because his generosity is not far above the common standard of human excellence. In all these instances we are not disposed to detract from the merit of the act in question; but should I discover that, far from excellent, disinterested, or, even as far as they can be so, indifferent, his motives were wholly selfish, that he conferred a small favour, in expectation of a greater return from the person on whom it was conferred, I then see in it no

thing more than a commercial speculation, and whenever that return is made, I consider the debt as fully discharged. And, lastly, should I find that, sacrificing every virtuous principle, he only conferred the favour, to be used as an engine in his own hands, by which he might hereafter mould me to the form he wished, and sacrifice my principles as he did his own, or convert all I possessed to his own use—like a usurer who lends money on an estate, only that he may hereafter wrest it out of the hands of its possessor—I feel myself not only completely freed from all sense of obligation, but justly execrate the very man who has benefited me; because, though the act itself was good, yet the motive in which it originated was such as gave him an undoubted claim to the character and rewards of a villain.

VALVERDI.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

ON THE PREVAILING IGNORANCE  
OF GEOGRAPHY.

AN American gentleman was once entertained by a *Welsh* knight. It was at the opening of the American war, on which the discourse naturally turned. The knight, after some discussion on the causes of the troubles, very shrewdly observed, that the troops designed for the service would have a very long *march*.

This story was related by the American with much exultation over the ignorance of the *Welsh* man. On inquiring where the knight lived, I was answered, "In *Shropshire*; but," added my friend, "I found equal ignorance of American geography in every other county in *Wales*."

A lady, sagacious and well-informed in general, observed that "the *Welsh* men in America were, in that respect, as ignorant as their countrymen. Her father had formerly a *Welsh* man for his servant, whom she once asked whether the



city of Wales was as large as New York. But the question, however plain, and though David had lived three months in the latter city, he was unable to answer."

"Pray," said a young girl, who had been very attentive to the conversation, addressing herself to the traveller, "where about in *North Wales* did this knight you talk of live? I was bred and born there, but don't remember any man of that name. I recollect one *Peggy Knight*, who used to come and stay at my father's in *killing-time*."

This produced a laugh from a great part of the company, who knew the questioner to have been born in the township of North Wales, not forty miles from Philadelphia.

"Child," said the traveller, "the Wales that I was talking of was Wales in *Europe*, not in America."

"Really," said an old gentleman, who had hitherto been silent, and speaking with great deference, "I thought, till this moment, that Wales was a place, not in Europe, but in *England*."

The traveller's countenance betrayed some marks of confusion.

"You are right," said he to the old gentleman, "I meant England. Wales is a part of England, it is true; for Europe is a continent; and England and Scotland, all the world knows, are *islands*."

This series of geographical blunders was, perhaps, the more remarkable, as there was hung up, in full view, on the wall of the apartment, a large map of Europe; and all the parties in this discussion had been, for a long time, accustomed to assemble conversationally in this room.

In truth, notwithstanding the facility with which geographical knowledge may be gained, there are few things with which men in general are less acquainted. This science is not immediately connected with any of the common pursuits of life. A man may outlive Methusalem, and bear his part in ordinary transactions without discredit, who yet knows not whether Indostan be an isthmus or peninsula.

Knowledge in general has been sometimes represented as a dome resting upon columns, which columns are the sciences. That column which contributed least to the grandeur or stability of the edifice is doubtless physical geography, or the sciences which acquaint us with the mode in which land and water, mountain and stream, are distributed over the surface of the globe. Whether the isles of New Zealand be hills or plains; whether the south pole be surrounded by continent or ocean; whether the Niger flows east or west; and whether the Nile proceeds, like other rivers, from springs in the earth, or from hills in the moon, are points than which it is hard to imagine any less important to our happiness, or less conducive to advancement in any of the useful arts or abstruse sciences. Every one knows the time, pains, and *pence* which the investigation of the three last questions has occasioned, and how much stress has been laid, by very grave people, on their accurate decision; yet surely human curiosity could scarcely be more idly employed.

There is a difference, it is plain, in the importance of different geographical questions. Lord North, when he proposed the invasion of the colonies, was under no absolute necessity of knowing that a long tract of water separated England from America. The admiralty commissioners and their agents, those at least who were to serve as pilots to the armaments, would stand in need of this knowledge; but lord North's coachman found it extremely convenient to know that his lordship's country residence lay on the north side of the Thames.

Baron de Tott found it very hard to convince the Turkish ministers that it was possible for a Russian fleet to make its appearance in the Archipelago, without passing the Dardanelles. This was a geographical fact, without doubt, of which it was dangerous to be ignorant.

Many a merchant of these states has sent cargoes to Petersburg and

Calcutta, who has been wholly ignorant whether oceans or mountains separated those places from each other; nor was this knowledge in him at all necessary to the success of his projects.

There were German abbots and bishops, before the reformation, who believed that the Cæsar spoken of in the gospels and apostolic acts was a descendant of Rodolphus of Hapsburg; and that Judea was a district somewhere in the neighbourhood of Rome.

The illiterate readers of the bible, indeed, in all nations, fall into whimsical and ludicrous errors, both as to the chronology and geography of the bible history. From some of these errors, the most enlightened and intelligent, in other respects, are not exempt. Two females, of great intellectual merit, once appealed to me, in a controversy which had risen between them, whether Egypt was separated from England by the Red sea or by the river Nile.

Geography indeed, in its strictest sense, and unconnected with other sciences, is of such little intrinsic importance, that no compilation or system, merely geographical, has hitherto appeared. Books under this title contain a medley of information, historical, statistical, philosophical, and moral; and, I may also add, astronomical: but the geography of these productions is little more than is contained in the maps which sometimes accompany them.

The value of geographical knowledge lies in its subservience to other arts or pursuits. It cannot boast of being a necessary handmaid to any; but its benefits to the reader of history are most conspicuous. It serves to make images flowing from narrations more vivid and durable, though it is not necessary to make them intelligible.

One, for instance, who should have engraven on his mind the map of England, consisting of all its outlines and divisions, and the mutual relations and distances of its shores, provinces, and cities, will read the history of the civil wars of Charles

I. with conceptions different from him who never saw a map, or read a topographical description; but the latter is as likely to comprehend the causes and tendencies of all events, to derive from the perusal of the story political and moral knowledge, as the former. His ideas, however, will be differently modified, and will be less satisfactory, and, if I may use the term, less picturesque than those of the former. R.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

ON SOCRATIC CONVERSATION.

Old Socrates was wise, they say,  
But had an arrant shrew to wife;  
*He* argued in the sweetest way!  
*She* cursed and scolded all her life:

But, madam, if he talked as fine,  
And argued in the style, *you* do,  
I wish old Xantip had been mine,  
And he had stumbled upon you.

IT is a pity that the most useful of intellectual exertions is at the same time the most difficult; but such is *definition*. The difficulty, indeed, disposes us to decry the utility; and to call for definitions is, now-a-days, accounted impolite. That readiness and accuracy of conception and command of language requisite to answer such calls, being seldom or never possessed, the call is heard generally with anger and impatience, and he that is used to make it may pass for logician or philosopher, but will never be ranked with polite men; politeness being merely the art of pleasing, directly, by soothing the vanity or banqueting the passions of others, or, indirectly, by avoiding accusation, and helping others to conceal their incapacity or ignorance.

The demand for definitions is part of the Socratic mode of talking; a mode which has got its name from one of the wisest and most benevolent of men, but which is looked upon, in most companies, as rude



and clownish, or, at least, as domineering and pedantic. It implies, in him that employs it, a belief not only of the error of his associate, but of his own power to rectify the error. Indeed, it implies something still more obnoxious to the pride of man: it implies, in me that uses it, a belief that my companion may be made to *confute himself*.

The true mode of proceeding on those occasions seems very obvious. If my companion be wrong in thinking me in error, and in thinking me *self-confutable*, let the truth show itself upon experiment. Let him take his own way, and, by putting questions, as many as he wishes, finally detect his own folly.

If he be in the right, why be reluctant to make it appear? Why be ashamed of our credulity or ignorance? Why be so enamoured of our opinions as not willingly to subject them to scrutiny? Do his interrogations prove him to be insolent or self-conceited? Let the promptitude with which we answer them, and adopt the inferences to which they inevitably lead, show our freedom, at least, from the same faults, and our alacrity in search of truth.

When we angrily repulse a Socratic questioner, what kind of temper do we manifest? Resentment, perhaps, at his insolence: the insolence of believing *us* in an error, and of thinking it possible to make *us* confute ourselves. A heinous offence truly!

Suppose, however, that we yield way to his humour, and answer freely and ingenuously all his questions; what will be the consequence? Either we shall ultimately be found in the wrong, and be actually made to confute ourselves, or our questioner will himself appear to be deceived, and the humiliation or conviction he designed for us, will redound upon himself.

Suppose the first consequence take place; then it was proper that it should take place; nor will genuine modesty, and the upright love of truth, labour to shun it. Our opi-

nion was, indeed, erroneous, and the questioner was in the right in supposing our error demonstrable.

Suppose the latter consequence to take place; our judgment then is effectually vindicated, and the folly or rashness of the questioner is clearly established. Nor can these ends be accomplished any other wise. By sullenly declining to answer, or by openly rebuking the questioner, we do not accomplish these ends. At best, we prove nothing but our own disapprobation of the questioner. We show our opinion of his insolence, but we do not convince others of his folly. For aught that appears, it may be that *he* is right, that *we* are wrong, and that we could be made to confute ourselves. The other method is so natural, so ingenuous, so effectual, that not to use it implies, in the strongest manner, that we are doubtful or fearful of the consequences.

The Socratic mode, you say, is always fallacious. A man may appear to conquer in this warfare, who yet does not deserve the victory. Besides, every one has not his ideas and his words at hand. An artful questioner may easily embarrass and confound the diffident, the involuble, the deficient in dexterity, but may not enlighten or convince.

This may be true, but affords no reason for declining the conflict. If he is not, in truth, victorious, your pride is saved: your opinion, for which you have a parent's fondness, is still your own. You have only shown what, if true, it is only a censurable vanity that would labour to hide; that you have not arguments and words by rote; that your conceptions are not clear, prompt, and lucidly arranged; and, to make no secret of this, freely to acknowledge, or clearly evince these defects, is behaviour far more worthy of an honest mind, than to betray resentment at the imputation, and to repay contempt with contempt.

Contempts repaying contempts, and reproaches exchanged for reproaches; what do they prove?

Generally nothing: but the utmost which they can possibly prove is, that our contemner deserves himself to be contemned; our reproacher to be reproached in his turn. They do not vindicate ourselves. They evince not the falsehood of the charges made against us, and are, therefore, no wise satisfactory to a candid judge.

H.

scarce any thing less than twenty feet meetings will suit the dock-yards, and as that size and upwards will necessarily decrease the proportion by increasing the distance, we may venture to say, that if they go on cutting as fast as has been done for the last ten years, every large stick, at least down to that size, that can be come at, will be consumed in thirty years.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

ON THE GROWTH AND CONSUMPTION OF TIMBER IN GREAT BRITAIN.

IT appears that the navy of the kingdom consumes annually nearly, if not above 117,000 loads of timber, and the quantity consumed in all the different mercantile yards throughout the kingdom, is little, if any thing short of 100,000 loads more, to which may be added, 10,000 loads at least for private provincial purposes, and the total quantity will be somewhere about 227,000 loads of timber cut down and consumed every year.

In order to ascertain the quantity of timber or number of trees now growing in South Britain, averaging ten feet meetings, the following mode has been adopted:

Supposing Great Britain to contain 108,000 square miles, equal to 69,120,000 square acres, and as the board of agriculture have ascertained that there are 7,888,977 acres of wastes, these deduct, together with 4,231,023 acres for downs, roads, rivers, canal, water, towns, and villages, from the total number of square acres, and that leaves 57,000,000 of acres.

Suppose there be five trees, averaging ten feet in every twenty acres, it will give us 12,250,000 trees, which being divided by 227,000, the number said to be annually consumed, the result will be that it will take near fifty-four years to consume them; but as

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

EASTON DELAWARE BRIDGE.

THIS elegant and substantial structure is now completed, and was opened for public use on Tuesday the fourteenth day of October, 1806; and such was the attraction of the occasion, that the company received, on that day, tolls for eight hundred and fifty-five foot passages over the bridge. On the day preceding, though the bridge was not yet open for general use, a drove of more than 150 mules were permitted to pass over it, and by that indulgence were saved the delay of several hours, which must necessarily have been consumed in crossing the river by the ferry boats. Independent of the vast accommodation this bridge has added to the ordinary communication of the neighbourhood, in which respect the effect is already manifested by the great increase of the intercourse with the borough; it is certain, that so important a facility will draw exclusively to this point the numerous travellers, who, with their families, teams, and cattle, are daily emigrating from the eastern states to the western and north-western country.

The superstructure of the bridge is of timber, forming three spacious arches, erected on stone piers and abutments of the most substantial masonry; the piers being protected by sterlings or ice-breakers of correspondent strength and dimensions. The frame of the superstructure was constructed by *Timothy Palmer*, of



Newburyport, architect of the bridge over the Schuylkill at Philadelphia; and is built essentially on the same plan, but with improvements, the result of experience, and accommodated to the local situation. The materials are of the best quality; the workmanship exceeds any thing of the same kind heretofore executed in the United States. The dimensions of the bridge are as follow:

	<i>Feet In.</i>
Length of the bridge, exclusive of the abutments and wing-walls, - - -	570 0
<i>Chord of the Arches.</i>	
Eastern arch, - - -	155 0
Middle arch, - - -	157 6
Western arch, - - -	159 4
Width of the bridge, - - -	29 0
Width of each carriage way in the clear, - - -	12 6
Curvature of the arches, - - -	11 0
Curvature of the floor or carriage way, - - -	6 0
Height, in the clear, over the carriage way, - - -	13 9
Height, from the surface of the river at low water mark, to the floor, - - -	45 0
<i>Thickness of the piers at top.</i>	
Eastern pier, - - -	31 6
Western pier, - - -	36 2
Length of the piers, - - -	40 0
Height of the piers at low water mark, - - -	27 0
Depth of water in which the western pier is sunk, - - -	18 0

The access to the bridge, at either end, is perfectly gentle and easy, forming precisely a continuation of the curvature of the floor, to the extent of the wing walls.

The company for the erection of this bridge was incorporated in 1795, and some progress was made in the following year in the erection of the piers and abutments; but the failure of the funds soon suspended the work, and little further was attempted till 1803, when Samuel Sitgreaves, Esq., was elected president of the company, and, with the assistance of an excellent board of mana-

gers, undertook to restore the affairs of the company. In the spring of 1805, the work was resumed, and the whole has been accomplished, without accident or any untoward circumstance, in less than two years. The piers and abutments were raised to the necessary elevation in the first summer; and the whole of the superstructure was begun and completed, by the faithful skill and diligence of about twenty-five carpenters, between the middle of April and the middle of October, being only six months of the present year. Mr. Samuel Carr, of Newburyport, superintended this department of the work, and effected so unexampled an instance of industry and dispatch.

By an act passed at the last session of the legislature, the sum of ten thousand dollars has been granted on a loan to the company, to enable them to cover and inclose the bridge; and with this fund, which is yet untouched, and which will constitute the only debt of the company, it is intended to proceed early in the spring to the protection of this invaluable public improvement by a roof and weather boarding.

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*For the Literary Magazine.*

FOREIGN NEWS, LITERARY, PHILOSOPHICAL, &c.

ARROWSMITH has been for more than a year past engaged in constructing a new map of Scotland, from original materials, to which he has obtained access by means of the parliamentary commissioners for making roads and building bridges in the Highlands of Scotland. The elaborate military survey of the main-land of Scotland, made in the middle of the last century, and preserved in his majesty's library, has been copied and reduced for the present map, and the several proprietors of the western islands have communicated all their surveys, most of which have been very re-

cently executed. In addition to the astronomical observations heretofore known, many latitudes and longitudes have been purposely ascertained for this map, as well as a considerable number of magnetic variations. This map is to be accompanied by a memoir, explanatory of the several documents from which it has been constructed. The publication may be expected in the beginning of next year.

The first part of the Townley marbles have been lately removed to the British Museum; the new building of which will in a few months be ready for the reception of the whole, after which they will be opened to public inspection.

The hall of University College, Oxford, is soon to be decorated with the portraits of its most illustrious members. Living personages will be included; and among them will be sir Roger Newdigate, sir William Scott, and Mr. Wyndham.

Among the works now in the British press, under the direction of the record commission, are the *Nona Rolls*, of Edward the third's time; the record called *Testa de Nevil*; and a double Index to the Domesday Survey.

The Journal of Modern and Contemporary Voyages and Travels is now giving to the public translations of Durand's Voyage to Senegal, and of Depons' recent and highly curious travels in the Caracas. The next ensuing volume will contain Sarykschew's Voyage in the Northern Ocean, translated from the Russian; an unpublished Voyage to China, and new Travels in the Crimea. The first four volumes of this original and interesting journal have introduced to the knowledge of the English public thirteen recent works of voyages and travels.

Bonnycastle is going to publish a new Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry.

The following is an account of the number of copies said to be regularly sold of the principal London magazines and reviews:

The Monthly Magazine 5000

Monthly Review	4250
Gentleman's Magazine	3500
European Magazine	3500
Ladies' Magazine	3000
Medical and Physical Journal	2250
British Critic	2000
Universal Magazine	2000
Journal of new Voyages and Travels	1500
Philosophical Magazine	1250
Anti-Jacobin Review	1250
Critical Review	1250
Monthly Mirror	1000
Nicholson's Journal	1000

How striking is the contrast of the sale of similar publications in France, of the most popular of which not more than 500 copies are regularly circulated. The periodical press of Germany is in a better condition, 4000 copies being sold of the Jena Literary Gazette, and nearly as many of some other literary and scientific journals.

Dr. Crotch, lecturer on the science of music at the Royal Institution, designs publishing Specimens of various Styles of Music.

Rogers, author of the Pleasures of Memory, has nearly finished an epic poem on the Horrors of Jacobinism.

Johnes, the translator and publisher of Froissart, is engaged in a new version of Joinville.

Dr. Toulmin, editor of the last edition of the History of the Puritans, and author of several original theological works, is printing at Birmingham the Life of the Rev. Samuel Bourne, with Sketches of the Lives of Ministers and others contemporary with him.

That illustrious patron of men of learning, the earl of Buchan, is collecting all the MSS. and drawings of the late Mr. Barry, with a view to publish them for the benefit of some indigent relations of that celebrated artist.

Walter Scott, Esq., is about to publish the Memoirs of Sir Henry Slingsby, Bart., from 1683 to 1648, written by himself. Also Memoirs of Captain John Hodgson, touching his conduct in the civil wars, writ-



ten by himself. To each work will be added various important papers relative to the operations of Oliver Cromwell and his army while in Scotland.

Jamieson is collecting for publication Popular Ballads and Songs, from tradition, MSS., and scarce editions, with translations of similar pieces from the ancient Danish language.

Dr. Gilbert Gerard's Institutes of Biblical Criticism, read in the university and King's college, Aberdeen, are in the press.

Dr. Adams's second edition of his work on Morbid Poisons is nearly printed. The anomalous class is much enriched by the late controversies and by the author's clinical observations, which have enabled him to proceed a step further towards a proper discrimination of the true characters of such as have been confounded with syphilis.

Nicholson has in his Journal given directions by which a person may save himself from drowning, if he chance to fall into the water. The results of his reasonings are, that if a man fall into deep water, he will rise to the surface by floatage, and will continue there, *if he does not elevate his hands*, and that the keeping them down is essential to his safety. If he move his hands *under* the water in any way he pleases, his head will rise so high as to allow him free liberty to breathe. And if, in addition, he move his legs exactly as in the action of walking up stairs, his shoulders will rise above the water, so that he may use less exertion with his hands, or apply them to other purposes. He has himself been witness to the success of the experiment.

Valpy, of Pembroke college, Oxford, is preparing a new and improved edition of Maittaire's Greek Dialects.

The new East India docks at Blackwall are now ready for the reception of shipping. The sluices of the floating gate were opened on the 26th of July, in the presence of the chairman, deputy chairman, and

several other directors of the East India Company. These docks consist of an entrance bason, of nearly three acres; a dock for inward-bound Indiamen of 18 acres; a dock for loading outward-bound Indiamen, of nearly nine acres, making together about 30 acres; there is an entrance lock, and two communication locks, capable of admitting the largest Indiamen, and his majesty's ships of war, of 74 guns. The depth of water at ordinary spring tides, is 26 feet. The whole premises are surrounded by a boundary wall 21 feet high; the quays are very spacious, being no less than 240 feet wide.

An artillery asylum is about to be established at Greenwich, similar to the military asylum at Chelsea. A grand general hospital is building at Woolwich for 700 sick, with suitable houses for the inspector-general, surgeon-general, physicians, chemists, &c.

An equestrian statue of king William the third is about to be erected in St. James's-square. The workmen have commenced their operations. The foundation of the statue below the water is to be of brick and Spanish terras; the pedestal will be ten feet high, and the statue is to be the same size as that at Charing Cross. Subscriptions to the amount of 8,000*l.* were collected some years ago for this purpose. The plan is under the direction of Mr. Bacon, the statuary.

Of all races of sheep, now fully naturalised in England, the South-Down are found to be the most profitable. Mr. William Dyke made, some time since, a comparative trial between the Wiltshire and South-Down breeds. It was on a farm of 230 acres of arable ground. The sheep were generally fed on about 40 acres of new field, 40 acres of old field, 14 acres of water-meadow, and 24 acres of pasture. Till 1791, the flock on these grounds consisted usually of from 320 to 360 Wiltshire breeding ewes, which produced 300 lambs, annually. From 1791, a flock of 430 South-Downs

was substituted. These, affording 430 lambs, yielded, in all, an annual profit of 304l. 10s. more than had been obtained from the Wiltshire flock.

A live toad was lately found in a block of stone at Newark, which a workman was dividing with wedges. It was of a white colour, and measured three inches and a half in length. The brilliancy of the light appeared to overcome its faculties, as it immediately stretched out its legs, and seemed exhausted. It died in about an hour, during which time it was seen by many hundreds of the inhabitants.

In a letter from Irkutsk, dated 24th April, 1806, the writer says, you will probably already know that the Russian embassy was obliged to turn back when arrived at the great wall of China. But new and unexpected will no doubt be the agreeable intelligence that Redowsky, the botanist attached to this embassy, has received from his majesty the emperor a new extraordinary commission to undertake a botanical tour in the extreme parts of the north-east of Asia. On the 5th of May he will leave Irkutsk, and sail down the Lena to Jakutzk; from that place he will proceed up the Aldan to its sources in the Mongolian mountains. These, as well as the Jablonoi-Chrebët (Apple Mountains), will be examined as far as the Eastern ocean. He will then proceed along the coast as far as Ochotsk, where he hopes to arrive in September. From Ochotsk he will either go by land round the Peuschin gulf to Kamtschatka, or by sea to Bolscheretzk, where he intends to pass the winter. In the summer of 1807, the Kurili islands will be examined as far as possible towards Japan, and the Aleutian islands as far as the continent of America. On his return he will visit Bering's island and the Copper islands. After passing the winter in Kamtschatka, the third summer's tour will be to Sagalien, and the islands at the mouth of the Amur, and thence he will proceed homewards up the Amur

through Yellow Mongolia and Nertschinsk, Davurira and Siberia.

Dr. Westring, physician to the king of Sweden, has obtained excellent dyes from different species of club-moss, *lycopodium*. The following is the method which he has found to be the most simple: take a quantity of this moss, dried and chopped, nearly double the weight of the cloth to be dyed. Put them into a proper vessel, a stratum of the moss between every fold of the cloth, and pour on a quantity of water sufficient to cover the whole. Boil them together for two or three hours, adding more water from time to time, to supply the place of what is wasted by evaporation. Take out the cloth thus prepared, wring it, and hang it up to dry without rinsing. When the cloth is to be dyed, it must be rinsed carefully in cold water, put into a well-tinned copper with cold water, and a small quantity of brazil, and then boiled gently for half an hour or more, according as the tint is to be deeper or lighter. If too much brazil be used, the dye will have a violet hue. When it is taken from the fire, the cloth is to be rinsed in cold water. Care must be taken that none of the common mordants either saline or astringent are used, for they would alter the colour.

Dr. Westring has found that the bark of the Scots fir is an excellent tonic, and may be successfully used in several convulsive diseases, even epilepsy, and that it may be substituted for the cinchona. In some parts of Sweden it is made into bread, which is said to be very nutritious and palatable.

In the course of the next year, a great alteration in the established worship is expected to take place in the Danish dominions. The present liturgy, which was framed under Christian V, and published so long since as 1685, has long been felt to be little adapted to the liberal and enlightened principles of the nineteenth century. With a view to bring about a suitable reformation in this branch, the right reverend P. O. Boisen, bishop of Lolland and Fal-



ster has composed a Plan of Improvement in Public Worship, which, in the latter end of last year, he submitted in manuscript to the consideration of government, desiring, however, that before any resolution should be taken upon it, it might be printed, and intelligent divines called upon to give in their opinions with respect to it. This has accordingly been done, and the bishop of Zealand, professor Munter, of the university of Copenhagen, and Lassen, of the royal chancery, have been appointed commissioners for examining and digesting the whole, the results of whose discussions are ordered to be laid before the king before the end of December in the present year.

A Danish Dictionary, on a plan similar to that of the *Dictionnaire de l'Academie Francaise*, which is intended to fix the orthography and form the standard of the language, has for some time been in hand, and is already in some degree of forwardness. It is undertaken at the expence, and conducted under the direction of the Royal Danish Society of the Sciences, and the most distinguished literati of the country are engaged in the execution of it, having divided among them the different letters of the alphabet.

The tobacco plantations at Fredericia, in Jutland, are now in a very flourishing state. Last year 83,363 pounds of tobacco, of different qualities, were produced by fifty-six planters.

At a meeting of the Society of Sciences of Drontheim, it was resolved to appoint Arndt, of Altona, to undertake a botanical and antiquarian tour through Norway, agreeably to the will of the late Mr. Hammer, who left a legacy for that purpose.

On the 17th of May, the Polish Society of the Friends of the Sciences held at Warsaw their public meeting, which was opened by the president in a speech, in which he treated of the labours of the society, and the works to be expected from the members. He particularly di-

rected their attention to the Travels of prince Alexander Sapieha, the results of which would considerably enrich the literature of his native country. Abbot Woronicz communicated the plan of a Polish epic poem, entitled the *Lechiade*, and read the first canto. A soaring flight of fancy; an enraptured, enthusiastic, and extremely correct diction, are the distinguishing traits of this production of genius, which is much more perfect than his Jagellonid and Sibyl. Abbot Von Stasic read a continuation of the account of his Geological Tour, which he lately undertook through the whole of the *cidevant* Poland, during which he made many interesting and important observations and discoveries relative to the natural history of that country, and of geology in general, as the Carpathian mountains had been the principal object of his inquiries. M. Stasic has likewise presented to the society 5000 ducats, for the purpose of erecting a suitable place for holding their meetings.

In Prussia, the potatoe is cultivated with peculiar success. As the stalk grows, the earth is heaped up, leaving only three leaves at top. The roots are thus greatly increased, and the produce is said to be astonishing.

M. Louis de Batzko, is engaged on a work entitled *On Myself and my Fellow-Sufferers the Blind*. It is divided into ten sections. 1. General remarks on the relations and conduct of the blind. 2. Notices relative to some remarkable and celebrated blind persons. 3. Observations on vision, and on the manner in which the other senses may supply the want of it. 4. On the institute at Paris for the education of the blind; remarks on the character, the peculiarities, the advantages and disadvantages of blind persons. 5. Instructions relative to the first education of all blind persons. 6. The moral and religious education of the blind. 7. Their scientific education. 8. The labours, trades, or professions, in which they

may be employed. 9. The blind considered as friends, as husbands, and fathers.—Mr. Baczko lost his sight at the age of twenty-one, and has now suffered twenty-five years' blindness. In his youth he was one of the favourite disciples of the celebrated Kant.

The observatory of Seeberg, near Gotha, which the late duke of Gotha, the founder of it, used to call his only monument, is at present abandoned. The celebrated M. Von Zach has followed the duchess dowager to Eisenberg, where a new observatory is building.

Professor Mayer read at the meeting of the Royal Society of Göttingen, on the 25th of January, the first part of his meteorological researches, which treats of the "Chemical affinity of the celestial bodies;" i. e., of the influence they may exercise upon one another, independently of their gravity, an influence which must be manifested in their atmospheres. He particularly treats of the effects produced by the moon on that of the earth, which led him to a discussion relative to the stones which are said to have fallen from the heavens. He remarks that almost all these phenomena happened when the moon was near one of its nodes, and on the wane. In the cases which seem to contradict this observation, the coincidence of the passage of the moon through one of its nodes with its last quarter had taken place in the preceding lunation. Thus it was in 1803, in the lunation which preceded the shower of stones at L'Aigle.

Verner, professor at the academy of the mines of Friedberg, has lately discovered a new mineral, to which he has given the name of *zoysite*, in honour of baron de Zoys, an eminent mineralogist who resides at Laybach.

The literary productions of Holland during the year 1805, inclusive of translations, were very numerous. Theology is the department of science which has furnished the greatest quantity of original works, the number amounting to 130, besides

the journals which treat chiefly of theological subjects. A weekly paper, which contains nothing but dissertations on the Bible, is supported by many contributors and subscribers.

Medicine, physics, and natural history, continue to be cultivated with considerable zeal, where they have already given celebrity to the names of so many eminent scholars.

In 1805, 114 works were published on various parts of these sciences. Of the journals peculiarly devoted to the sciences, the Magazine of the Healing Art, and the Memoirs of the Society of Haarlem, are the most esteemed.

The number of new pieces brought out on the Dutch stage is 38, tragedies and comedies; of which, however, only six were originals.

Holland can boast of several academies and literary societies, more or less celebrated, which are always ready to reward the talents of poets and orators. That which is known by the name of *Felix Meritis* has lately elected Geysbeck, author of a translation of Esmenard's poem on Navigation, one of its members. Another poet, Kinker, has sung the charms of Ziezenis and Kantian philosophy. There likewise appeared in the course of that year seven or eight original Dutch novels, and some accounts of travels, among which those of M. Vander Willigen in France are favourably spoken of.

That a taste for literature is generally diffused in Holland, appears from the project of a company of merchants at Amsterdam, who have there established an office for the arts and belles-lettres. They do not confine their views to the productions of their country, their aim being to form a point of union for Dutch and foreign literature. They have already completed a considerable collection of the best Dutch, English, French, German, and Italian works.

In Amsterdam, a society of German Jews have acted comic operas



with considerable success for more than twenty years. Only one piece however is mentioned as having been written expressly for this society: it is intitled *Mardocheus, or the Jews saved*. The music however is not original, being borrowed from several known operas.

The following is said to be an infallible remedy for stopping hemorrhages from the nose, and has been in use more than a century in the province of Frisia.—*R. Sacchari saturni 1 oz. vitrioli martis ¼ oz. seorsim terantur in mortario vitreo, add. spiritus vini 8 oz.* To be taken in quantities of from 10 to 20 drops, according to the age of the patient, in a spoonful of wine or brandy.

M. de la Lande's annual medal for the best work on astronomy has been adjudged by the French National Institute to Svannerg, a Swedish astronomer, who has lately published an account of the measuring of a degree in Lapland, showing the error that has been made in measuring it in 1736.

The Imperial printing establishment at Paris affords constant employment to 400 workmen, besides a number of women, who fold and stitch the pamphlets and laws printed there.

Gum Arabic is successfully used as a remedy in France for pulmonary complaints.

Guyton gives the following as a sure specific against the effects of contagion:—Take four ounces of salt, 16 grains of oxide of manganese, water two ounces, and sulphuric acid two ounces. The manganese in powder is mixed with the salt in an earthen vessel, the water is then added, and afterwards the sulphuric acid. One fumigation is sufficient, if the chamber be not inhabited; but if there be patients, it must be repeated three or four times.

A splendid edition of the Poems of Petrarch has been published at Pisa, in two volumes, folio, under the superintendence of a literary society. It is adorned with a portrait of Petrarch, engraved by Morghen.

Humboldt and Gay-Lussac have published the results of some interesting experiments made at Naples, with the *raja torpedo*. They selected for this purpose large and lively subjects. They received a shock on touching with one finger a single surface of the electrical organs, or on laying both hands at once on both surfaces, the upper and the under; and it is indifferent whether the person so touching the torpedo be insulated or not. If an insulated person touch the *raja* with only one finger, the touch must be immediate. No shock is felt if any conducting body, any metal for instance, intervene between the finger and the organ of the fish. And if a torpedo be laid on a plate of metal, it may be carried in one hand with impunity. The hand does not feel any commotion when another insulated person irritates the fish, though convulsive motions of its breast-fins indicate the strongest discharges of its electrical matter. On the contrary, if the plate on which the fish lies be held in one hand, and the upper surface of the electrical organ touched with the other, a vehement shock is felt in both arms. The result will be the same if the fish be laid between two metal plates, the edges of which do not join, and the plates laid hold of with both hands at once. But if there be any immediate communication between the edges of the two plates, no shock is communicated. From experiments made with the electrometer and condensator, it appeared that flame is not a conductor of the torpedo electricity.

Demeter Alexandrides, M. D., of Tyrnawa, in Thessaly, has translated Goldsmith's History of Greece into modern Greek. The first volume, accompanied with a map of ancient Greece, has already been published.

Two Greeks, the brothers Zoizima, are applying part of their fortune towards a new edition of all the ancient Greek classics, from Homer down to the Ptolemies, under the superintendence of their countryman

Coray. This collection, printed by Didot, is intended for such of their countrymen as wish to learn the language of their forefathers. It will be delivered gratis in Greece to diligent scholars and active teachers; and a considerable discount allowed to such wealthy patrons of learning as buy copies for the purpose of presenting them to poor students.

The Literary Society of Bombay, sir James Mackintosh president, will shortly publish a volume of transactions. The public library of Bombay has been transferred to the society; and they are about to collect specimens of the natural history and remains of antiquity in the country.

The college of Fort William, in Bengal, has opened new sources of information on all oriental subjects. There are now in that college upwards of one hundred learned men, from different parts of India, Persia, and Arabia.

Under the auspices of marquis Wellesley, a version of the holy scriptures was promised in seven of the oriental tongues, in the Hindoostanee, Persian, Chinese, Malay, Orissa, Mahratta, and Bengalee.

Kollman, the king's German organist, has lately published a New Theory of Musical Harmony, according to a complete and natural system of that science. This work is meant as an improvement or correction of a former publication on the same subject, is elaborate and erudite, and comprizes, as far as it is at present known, the whole science of musical harmony. The author enters on the consideration of his proposed system, of the musical scale, the modern scale, a musical mode, of intervals, the use of intervals in harmony and melody, the fundamental concord and its inversions, accidental chords, fundamental progression, modulation, simple counter-point, double counter-point, imitation and variation, and time and rhythm, in all which he is very minute, clear, and satisfactory. Those musical students who wish to fathom the depths of the science, and see the *rationale* of their practice, will derive much and rapid improvement from the perusal of this volume, and soon find themselves adequate to the ready comprehension of the most abstruse passages of the classical masters.

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## POETRY.

*For the Literary Magazine.*

TO HUBERT,

*In answer to his Rural Cot\*.*

HASTE, Cupid, haste, expand thy wing,  
Thy quiver full of arrows bring,  
And, with thy truest, surest dart,  
Transfix for ever Hubert's heart;  
And, when he writhes beneath the steel,  
Call me the rankling wound to heal.  
Or come and bind, with silken knot,  
The hero of the *Rural Cot*.  
For, though 'twas rais'd on empty air,  
Around it hung thy magic snare,

\* Vide Vol. V, p. 399.

Possess'd of more than syren's art  
To captivate and hold my heart.

Why does the urchin stay?

What can the elf detain?

He hears not what I say,

Nor deigns to heed my pain,

But leaves me to endure

Pangs time may never cure.

To all my moanings deaf as though  
asleep,

My destiny is fix'd, I'm doom'd to  
weep.

But soft—O gently soft—he's near!

He comes, with sweetly laughing eye

He comes! a moment brings him here!

Ah! 'twas Zephyrus passing by.

'Tis thus the silly brain imparts

False hope that agonizes hearts!



But go, Zephyrus, go,  
 My grief let Hubert know,  
 And tell him I will share  
   His humble, rural *Cot*,  
 Blest with his presence there,  
   Nor envy queens their lot,  
   Nor all the regal state  
   Of Bonaparte the great.  
 And tell him I've in store,  
   What most he seeks to find,  
 Than jewels valu'd more,  
   An *independent mind*.

Nor can he doubt the same,  
 While freely I impart  
 So undisguis'd a flame,  
   That has ensnar'd my heart.  
 And though my mien nor form  
 Bespeaks nor grace nor ease,  
 He'll find a heart most warm,  
 And fervent wish to please.  
 For happiness, the youth  
 Abroad need never roam,  
 For smiles, content, and truth  
 Shall dwell with me at home.

JEMIMA.

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TO READERS AND CORRESPONDENTS.

DR. MEASE'S communication has been received, and shall have a place in our next. The Editor will always be happy to make this work the vehicle of conveying information on agricultural topics.

The *Traveller's* first letter will appear in our next number.

*Clito's* communication is not suited for a place in this work.

Our next number will contain some interesting Remarks on the Population, Culture, and Products of Louisiana.

Several communications, in prose and verse, are received, and will be inserted in due time.

END OF VOLUME VI.

